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Highways & Byways

In reviewing a recent work of French fiction — M. Zola's *Fecundité* — whose clinical realism makes it unfit for translation and perusal in English-speaking communities, a British critic takes occasion to note the disappearance of the naturalistic school of novelists. Even the founder of this once much-vaunted school has abandoned his earlier manner and pretensions. The naturalistic novel was "scientific" and experimental. It imagined nothing and faithfully copied nature. It was a mirror, and nothing else. Somehow it saw only the seamy, sordid, ugly sides of life, and remained, for the most part, blind to the bright, pleasant and inspiring sides, but this tendency was not of the essence of the theory of absolute fidelity to the real and actual. Today, though naturalistic novels continue to be written and read, the school has disappeared. Indeed, the past few years are distinguished for the decadence of literary schools of all kinds and for what René Doumic, an eminent French critic who has lectured in the United States, has described as a condition of "literary anarchy." The phrase is ominous in sound, but the state which it designates is anything but deplorable.

No school dominates, and there is no single formula for the summary judgment of literature. We have, in every country which boasts of literary culture at all, romantic writers, realists, symbolists, impressionists, "decadents" and unclassified artists. Any book of merit commands attention, and no one cares to which category it belongs. Tolstoy, Zola, Hardy, Meredith, Howells, James, Mrs. Ward, Barrie, Kipling, Anthony Hope, Stephen Crane, d'Annunzio, and scores of others, are found side by side. Who can say what the "note" of modern imaginative literature is? From a critical point of view the literary situation may be bewildering, but is there not room for all styles, and are we

not likely to have healthier and better tastes in consequence of an infinite variety of forms and manners?

In one respect this "literary anarchy" might seem detrimental. Is there not danger to the element of naturalism in modern fiction? The diversity of styles breeds a cosmopolitanism and a receptivity which, at first sight, would appear to be incompatible with jealousy and keen love of the national spirit and its revelations in literature. But experience dissipates this fear. Nationalism is too deep-rooted, too vital and significant to fade and yield under any amount of foreign influence. It manifests itself even in the frankest imitations. It assimilates alien qualities and colors them. It is irrepressible. The freest interchange of intellectual ideas and sentiments cannot destroy or even weaken national peculiarities. Only in a superficial sense is literature becoming cosmopolitan. Provincialism is vanishing and giving place to toleration and appreciation of foreign ideas and tendencies, but literature does not cease to be redolent of the soil and representative. There is still the greatest difference between Latin and Teutonic literature, and between Teutonic and Anglo-Saxon, or even between British and American. The "literary anarchy" therefore threatens no upheaval in the world of books and imaginative thought.



Attempts to estimate the late John Ruskin's influence upon the present age may be premature, but they are inevitable since he loomed so large from so many points of view. It is possible here to point to only one phase of his greatness, and that, upon the judgment of Frederic Harrison, whose "Tennyson, Ruskin, Mill and Other Literary Estimates" has recently come from the

book-presses. Mr. Harrison chooses, from "The Harbours of England" (1856), Ruskin's word-painting of the bow of a boat to prove him a master of prose:

This splendid hymn to the sea-boat rolls on to that piece which I take to be as fine and as true as anything ever said about the sea, even by our sea poets, Byron or Shelley:

"Then, also, it is wonderful on account of the greatness of the enemy that it does battle with. To lift dead weight; to overcome length of languid space; to multiply or systematize a given force; this we may see done by the bar, or beam, or wheel, without wonder. But to war with that living fury of waters, to bare its breast, moment after moment, against the unwearied enmity of ocean,—the subtle, fitful, implacable smiting of the black waves provoking each other on, endlessly, all the infinite march of the Atlantic rolling on behind them to their help, and still to strike them back into a wreath of smoke and futile foam, and win its way against them, and keep its charge of life from them;—does any other soulless thing do as much as this?"



THE LATE JOHN RUSKIN.

This noble paragraph has truth, originality, music, majesty, with that imitative power of sound which

is usually thought to be possible only in poetry, and is very rarely successful even in poetry. Homer has often caught echoes of the sea in his majestic hexameters; Byron and Shelley occasionally recall it; as does Tennyson in its milder moods and calm rest. But I know no other English prose but this which, literally and nobly describing the look of a wild sea, suggests in the very rhythm of its cadence, and in the music of its roar, the tumultuous surging of the surf—"To war with that living fury of waters"—"the subtle, fitful, implacable smiting of the black waves,"—"still to strike them back into a wreath of smoke and futile foam, and win its way against them." Here we seem not only to see before our eyes, but to hear with our ears, the crash of a stout boat plunging through a choppy sea off our southern coasts.

I would take this paragraph as the high-water mark of Ruskin's prose method.



Are cheap books and periodicals an advantage or a detriment from the standpoint of intellectual and literary progress? It is the fashion to congratulate ourselves on the unexampled diffusion of literacy and the reading habit, and on the accessibility of all sorts and classes of books, but has it been demonstrated that real culture has gained thereby? Professor H. T. Peck of Columbia, who is also editor of *The Bookman*, and S. S. McClure, the publisher and magazine editor, debated this subject lately before a New York

club. Professor Peck maintained that cheap literature was a curse; that in the good old days when a book was a real luxury it was treated with a veneration which meant lasting and profound profit from it; that the man of a few books, thoroughly digested and comprehended, is more "educated" in a literary sense than the superficial reader of numberless and varied productions, and, finally, that the appetite for fiction is merely a sign of restlessness and dissipation, not of a genuine affection for letters. Professor Peck further asserted that the public taste was being corrupted and educated downward by the majority of contemporary writers, and that the haste, sensationalism and commercialism of the day presented temptations which even authors capable of better things and "armed for greater combats"—to use a Stevenson phrase—cannot and do not resist. Under a régime of "few and good books" authors and readers are alike conscientious.

Mr. McClure combatted all of these assertions. He believed that cheap books were a blessing; that the authors are compelled to do their best work by the growing discrimination and intelligence of the public; that the general reader is more critical than ever and is in no need of the guidance of professional critics, and that no book succeeds which is destitute of solid merit and worth. This thoroughly optimistic view will not commend itself to many, though Professor Peck undoubtedly exaggerates the evils and underestimates the benefits of a condition which brings the finest—as well as the emptiest—creations of literary artists within the reach of multitudes. It is true that much unprofitable stuff is greedily devoured, and it is true that not all reading is helpful and educative. But how is the taste of the average man improved? Not by the painstaking study of a few masters, not by unsystematic reading of everything which falls under his notice. Those who read nothing of permanent value are but few, after all, and under a different state of literary production they would remain absolute strangers to books. Most men, no matter how they begin, gradually learn to prefer the more serious and nobler works. The elevation of standards is unconscious, but it is real. The hollow and crude novels eventually lose their interest, and the reader craves something capable of giving intellectual pleasure. The balance is one of advantage, and progress is constant and steady, even if not rapid, as some imagine. The accessions of large and new elements to the reading public obscures somewhat the

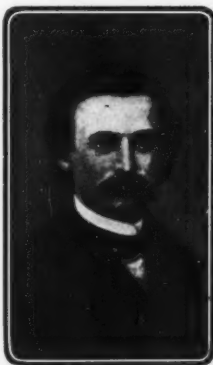
general trend, but there is reason for believing that it is in the right direction.



In recent years, outside of professedly literary circles, better acquaintance with the poetry of Henry Timrod has been found a source of keen delight. No current "Timrod revival," however, needs to be cited as a reason for presenting the appreciation of this southern poet, which appears elsewhere in this issue of *THE CHAUTAUQUAN*. His contributions to American literature form the subject upon which many Chautauquans in the south are specializing this year; and others desire a discriminating estimate of his place in our literature. Last year the Timrod Memorial Association of his native city and state, Charleston, South Carolina, undertook to publish a new and complete edition of his poems, with the purpose of erecting "a suitable public memorial to the poet, and also to let his own words renew and keep his own memory in his land's literature." The first edition of his poems was published in Boston in 1860, and he died in 1867, at the age of only thirty-eight years.



In these days when there is such a widespread determination among the gifted as well as the ungifted to "rush into print," it may be profitable to listen to the voice of one who knows whereof he speaks in regard to "literature as a profession." Professor Brander Matthews of Columbia University, in a recent address claimed that there are very few men of letters who follow the profession exclusively for a livelihood, simply because they seldom



HENRY TIMROD.

receive enough money to live on. They are dependent upon other work for their bread, and get their "butter" out of their literary work. It was Grant Allen, lately deceased, who said, perhaps in a moment of disappointment at the non-productiveness of his literary efforts from the pecuniary standpoint: "Brain for brain, in no market can you sell your abilities to such poor advantage. Don't take to literature if

you've capital enough to buy a good broom and energy enough to annex a vacant crossing." Professor Matthews holds, and properly so, that there is a vast difference between literature and journalism; literature being a product that is expected to endure, while journalism is merely a thing of today. Nevertheless, the journalist not infrequently climbs to the topmost peak of the enduring ranges of literature, but in the effort he has become transformed into a man of letters.

The higher mission of literature finds an ardent champion in Dr. Henry Van Dyke, who has only recently relinquished the pastorate of Brick Presbyterian Church, New York, for a professorship of English literature in Princeton University. He does not produce literature on the bread



THE LATE R. D. BLACKMORE,
Author of "Lorna Doone."

and butter principle, nor does he believe that any sordid and materialistic motive should influence, not to say dominate, the attitude of an author toward the people. In a recent address he defended the principles of democracy in the realm of letters, as elsewhere. He says:

"The people have inalienable rights to life, liberty and the pursuit of happiness. The people do not exist for the sake of literature: to give the author fame, the publisher wealth, and books a market. On the contrary, literature exists for the sake of the people: to cheer the weary, to console the sad, to hearten up the dull and downcast, to increase man's interest in the world, his joy of living and his sympathy with all sorts and conditions of men. Art for art's sake is heartless, and soon grows artless. Art for the public market is not art at all, but commerce. Art for the people's service, for the diffusion

'Of joy in widest commonalty spread,'
is a noble, vital, permanent element of human life."



The National Institute of Arts and Letters, recently organized, held its first meeting in New York a short time ago, under the presidency of Charles Dudley Warner. This organization had its inception in the American Social Science Association, and the original intention was to have the institute form another branch of the association, but this did not seem practicable. The purpose of the institute is the advancement of art and literature, and the qualification to member-

ship is notable achievement in art or letters. As the number of active members is to be limited to one hundred, the institute is an exclusive affair, and suggests an academy of immortals. There is a suggestion of the modern trust in it also, since it is declared that, in strict analogy with the action of other professions and of almost all the industries, the organization of the producers of literature and art will conduce to the advancement of these necessary things, and to the protection of the interests of those who participate in their production. If the general standard of art and letters is raised by this organized effort there will be every reason for commendation; but it is feared that it will require more than the gentle persuasions of the institute to prevent the publication of an evil book or picture, or to preserve our public parks from desecration, or



MRS. G. W. CATT,
New President Woman's
Nat'l Suffrage Ass'n.

to remove the vile bill-boards which scandalize our communities.



The politics of France will continue to be studied with interest in the United States, owing to the approaching Exposition and the dependence of peace and order in Paris upon the stability of the republic. Some concern has been excited by the election of General Mercier to the Senate. Mercier was the arch-enemy of Captain Dreyfus, and he is regarded as the head of the "Nationalist" and reactionary forces which are plotting to overthrow the existing régime. The cabinet of Waldeck-Rousseau, styled justly a government for the defense of the republic, vigorously opposed Mercier's candidacy, but it did not go to the length of arresting and trying him on the charges laid at his door by the Dreyfusards—charges of instigating forgery, stealing and misusing secret documents and giving illegal orders to the first court-martial which condemned Dreyfus. It introduced, instead, a general amnesty bill to liquidate all the cases that have grown out of the famous "affair." Mercier, however, defied the cabinet and virtually threatened it

with playing the part of a Boulanger. He was elected in a heavily monarchical and reactionary district, and the Nationalists have hailed his victory as a vindication for their movement and for Paul Deroulede and the other plotters and conspirators who had been found guilty and either banished or imprisoned under the judgment of the Senate sitting as a high court. Two other Nationalist candidates were elected to the Senate, but twenty-seven failed, and as a whole the senatorial elections resulted favorably to the republic. The complexion of the upper chamber is not changed, and it will continue to coöperate with Waldeck-Rousseau and General de Gallifet in the efforts to pacify the nation, establish the supremacy of the civil law and restore discipline in the army. In the Chamber of Deputies the ministry has received several votes of confidence, and a long career is predicted for it. It has had trouble over serious strikes and clerical assaults upon the republic. The powerful order of the Assumptionists has been dissolved for using its funds and moral influence in conspiracies against the government, and several bishops have been deprived of their stipends for expressing sympathy with the order. A whole series of measures designed to secularize education is proposed, and a bitter contest is anticipated. Moderation is, however, the watchword of the cabinet, and nothing will be done to offend the clergy needlessly. Many believe that, were it not for the Exposition, which would suffer greatly from internecine conflicts, the present cabinet could not command a majority. No other ministry could do better, or as well.



Congress is not as patient with regard to the projected trans-isthmian canal as has been supposed it would be, considering the fact that a new commission is investigating the Nicaragua and Panama routes and gathering data for a complete report. Both houses have had bills unanimously reported to them for the construction of a canal on the Isthmus of Darien. The Senate bill differs very materially from that of the House. Both provide for direct government construction, ownership and control; both provide for the acquisition of the necessary territory at the termini and along the canal from the Republics of Nicaragua and Costa Rica. But the House bill is based on the principle of an exclusive canal closed to the enemies of the United States in time of war. It treats the projected canal as an adjunct of the military

power of the country, as part of our own coast-line. Free and open to all under normal conditions of peace upon the same terms as to tolls for maritime trade, the United States alone could use the canal during a state of war between itself and any other power. To effect this purpose, the ocean termini would have to be fortified, and the House bill appropriates money for such fortification.

The Senate bill distinctly declares for a neutral canal, for the application of the policy adopted by England in relation to Suez. "We owe it to ourselves," says the report of the Senate committee, "and to the whole world that whatever canal we shall build and control on the Isthmus of Darien shall be as open, free and neutral to all nations as its corresponding gateway, the Suez canal." The Senate bill omits all reference to fortifications.

The old Clayton-Bulwer treaty, which prohibited either of the signatory powers—Great Britain and the United States—from asserting exclusive control over any Atlantic-Pacific canal and making it an adjunct of the military power, has been modified by mutual consent. A new convention recently framed, known now as the Hay-Pauncefote convention, authorizes the United States to construct, police, control and own the isthmian canal, subject to the sole condition that it shall be free, open and neutral in peace or war. This convention is vehemently

attacked, even in Republican circles and by staunch supporters of the administration, and there is some doubt of its ratification by the Senate. The validity of the Clayton-Bulwer treaty is denied on various grounds, and it is asserted that the United States is entitled to build and fortify the canal regardless of the wishes of Europe. In all probability the neutrality principle will *ultimately* be accepted, though the struggle will be long and stubborn.

Apart from this momentous international question, all agree that a canal is necessary. The cost is estimated at \$140,000,000. Such an interoceanic link has been the dream of navigators for ages. In any case, to use the language of the Senate report, it would be invaluable to us "as a connection and prolongation of our *commercial* coast-line from Alaska to Maine, as a door of access to our possessions in the Pacific and along its shores, a highway for our warships and merchantmen, and a stronger bond of union between the eastern and the western states."



Shall there be free trade between Porto Rico and the United States? Is the West Indian island part of the United States and as such entitled to free trade under the constitutional provision for uniformity of custom duties and excise? If not, and Congress is not bound by the constitution in legislating for Porto Rico or any other new possession, is Porto Rico entitled to free access to our markets on general grounds of justice and expediency? President McKinley and Secretary Root have earnestly favored free trade with Porto Rico, but the proposal aroused much opposition, and both the Senate and House have had amendments reported to the bills providing a new civil government for the island named, which levy a duty on Porto Rican exports and imports, though the duty is much lower than the average rate imposed by the present general tariff law on foreign goods. A sub-committee of the House has considered the constitutional question and reached the conclusion that Porto Rico is not an integral part of the United States and that, consequently, the constitution does not automatically extend to it. If, then, Congress is at liberty to use its discretion in legislating for that dependency, it is argued, there is no reason for giving it free access to our home market. Such access would not only injure our tobacco growers and sugar planters, but—it is apprehended—establish a precedent which would have to be followed



THE NEW COLOSSUS OF ROADS.—*Minneapolis Journal.*

in the case of the Philippines after the restoration of order and peace in that vast archipelago, since there is no difference of status between it and Porto Rico. Both are subject to our sovereignty; both were ceded to us in the treaty with Spain. The Porto Ricans have been patient, loyal, and anxious to be assimilated, and they resent keenly the plan of taxing their exports and imports. But it is evident that free trade with them is not popular in Congress and in certain sections of the country. The question of their *right* to such free commercial intercourse will, of course, have to be determined by the Supreme Court in a concrete case.



An event of interest to the west and south is the opening of the Chicago drainage canal, which took place some weeks since. The channel is the largest in the world, and as an engineering enterprise it commands attention and admiration. It is spoken of by the Chicago press as the most imposing sanitary project of the nineteenth century. The canal was primarily intended as an outlet for the sewage of Chicago, which was discharged into the Chicago river and Lake Michigan. This pollution of Chicago's water supply had to be stopped, and over seven years ago an act was passed by the Illinois legislature creating a sanitary district and a board of drainage trustees to issue bonds and raise money by taxation for the construction of an artificial channel to carry off the sewage of Chicago. The channel extends from a point in that city to Lockport, Illinois, about twenty-nine miles to the southwest. At Lockport the water of the channel flows into the Desplaines river; thence it goes into Illinois river, and finally it reaches the Mississippi, the "Father of Waters." The residents of the towns of the Illinois valley and of St. Louis fear that the sewage thus diverted may poison their water supplies, and efforts were made to prevent the opening of the canal. But the state and federal authorities gave the requisite permission, and the Supreme Court of the United States refused to issue an injunction on *ex parte* statements, without notice to the officials of Illinois. But the court will hear argument shortly on the appeal of St. Louis and the state of Missouri against the action of Illinois in polluting the Mississippi.

The theory upon which the channel was built is that the sewage will be rendered harmless by dilution. The law requires a flow of 300,000 cubic feet of water per min-

ute from Lake Michigan into the channel and the streams with which it connects, and it is claimed that the effect of the channel will be a great improvement, instead of a contamination, of the Illinois and Mississippi. Chemical and bacterial examinations are being made to determine the correctness of this theory, and the question will finally be settled on the actual evidence that will be gathered.

But the canal will ultimately be something more than an outlet for sewage. The intent of the drainage act was to make it a great waterway, a link connecting the Great Lakes and the Gulf. This is expected to revolutionize the commerce of the west and south, cheapen transportation and develop the industries of many states that find no ready markets for their products. This aspect of the enterprise will depend on the action of Congress. It will be necessary to appropriate many millions to improve the Illinois. Chicago has expended about \$33,000,000 on the canal, and much yet remains to be done. Illinois is willing to turn the canal over to the federal government and make a commercial waterway of it. Competent engineers look with favor upon the scheme.



Will the Federal Supreme Court reverse itself on the question of inheritance taxation as it did on the income tax question? There are many who believe that the coming decision in the four legacy tax cases recently argued at Washington by eminent lawyers, the court will declare void and unconstitutional that feature of the war revenue act which imposes a tax on inheritances. Several objections have been vigorously urged against this tax. In the first place, it is contended that the privilege of bequest and inheritance is a creation of the state legislature, with which the general government can have nothing to do, and that a tax upon money transferred by operation of state law is an interference with or a burden upon such law. In the second place, it is asserted that a tax on legacies is a direct tax, because the person who inherits money or property must pay it and cannot shift it over to any other person, and all direct taxes must be levied upon states in accordance to their population, not upon individual citizens. In the third place, it is alleged that the tax is not equal and uniform in its operation and therefore inconsistent with the constitutional guaranty of equal enforcement of law. The tax is, in fact, a progressive, not a propor-

tional one. It creates several taxable classes, the amount inherited being the basis of classification, and the rate varies as the share increases. Estates of less than \$10,000 are totally exempted; on estates below \$25,000 the rate is 75 cents for each \$100 if the bequest goes to descendants, lineal ancestors or brothers or sisters of the testator, and \$1.50 per \$100 where it goes to collateral legatees. Heirs not of kin are taxed \$5 per \$100. The amount increases and rises to 15 per cent in certain cases. This, it is held, is clear discrimination against the rich and is un-American and "socialistic."

On behalf of the government it was maintained by the solicitor-general that the tax is not direct, because it is levied neither on persons nor on property, but on the privilege of inheritance; that it is no burden upon state law to impose an excise upon privileges, even such as are created by state legislation; that graduated taxes based upon reasonable distinctions are not repugnant to the requirement of substantial equality, and that classification based upon amount is not arbitrary, but reasonable. Precedent favors the government, for the Supreme Court has repeatedly sustained a federal inheritance tax and in a late Illinois case it decided that progressive taxation is not unconstitutional. Most of the objections now advanced were raised in the Illinois case and they are not novel. The belief among the lawyers that the court will annul the inheritance feature of the revenue law is manifestly founded on the analogy presented by the income tax litigation, but it must be remembered that the "psychological atmosphere," whose influence the highest courts cannot escape, is not the same as it was when the great struggle over federal income taxes was settled adversely to the government. The probability is that the court will abide by its own previous decisions and reaffirm the authority of Congress to impose progressive taxes as well as proportional ones.

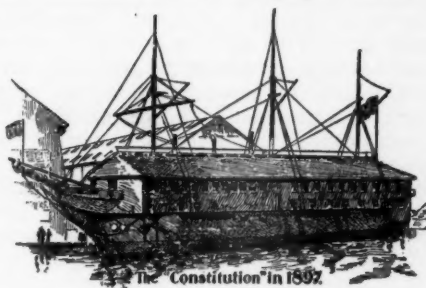


The various hereditary patriotic societies which have had such a mushroom growth in the United States within the past decade have been the target for a good deal of newspaper wit. In many localities, however, they are vindicating their right to existence by their public-spirited service in preserving buildings and other memorials of our historic past. There is in Massachusetts a state society of the "Daughters of 1812" which has devoted itself to a

work of exceptional interest — no less than the rehabilitation of the frigate *Constitution*, the "Old Ironsides" of our navy. The part which this vessel played in our second war with England is one of the brightest chapters in American naval annals. Years ago when some practical official proposed to break up the vessel for her old metal, the impassioned lines of Dr. Holmes,

"Ay, tear her tattered ensign down!"

evoked such a storm of protest as to cause the abandonment of the design. After a



THE PATRIARCH OF OUR NAVY,
At Kittery (Portsmouth) Navy Yard.

term of service as a training ship at Annapolis, "Old Ironsides" was retired for old age. For years she has lain at the navy yard at Portsmouth, New Hampshire, her warlike pride humbled under a house roof, and her gun-deck used for a sailor's boarding-house. Three years ago, on the centenary of her launch at Boston, October 20, 1797, the Massachusetts Historical Society petitioned Congress to restore the vessel to the condition of her early prime. But Congress had no money for such a sentimental project, and it seemed as if her dissolution could not be much longer postponed.

The Daughters of 1812 have gone at the matter in another way. Having faith in the power of patriotic sentiment among the people, they informed the Navy Department that they would obtain the necessary funds for restoring the old frigate to serviceable condition in order that she may be again placed in commission, the work to be done at the navy yard at Boston and carried on and completed to the satisfaction of the department. According to a survey which has been made, it is estimated that \$100,000 will be required to rehabilitate the ship. Secretary Long espoused the cause of the petitioners and in recommending their request to Congress gave it this emphatic approval: "The *Constitution*, as she exists

today, is a relic of the glory of the navy in its early days, and the fact that the memory of her prowess is still cherished among the people is a gratifying evidence of patriotism that should be encouraged. The restoration of this old man-of-war for the government by voluntary contributions from the people under the auspices of this society would be an object lesson of great value to the nation." The bill, which has passed the preliminary stages without opposition, provides that the vessel when completed may be converted into a training ship, or "in the discretion of the secretary of the navy she may be used as a naval museum and floating monument to the glory of American sailors, to be stationed at the navy yard, Washington, D. C., or elsewhere." Great credit attaches to the Massachusetts Daughters of 1812 for their part in the matter, but who that remembers the original sentiments of Massachusetts toward the second war with England would have imagined that the time would ever come when her daughters would raise money to perpetuate the memory of its events!

One historical anecdote, at least, seems to be founded upon a rock. An incident of the capture of Quebec which has figured for a century in text-books of history and literature is that which connects the gallant General Wolfe with Gray's "Elegy." In Stanhope's History the anecdote first took form. As he relates it, on the morning of the assault, Wolfe, having commanded absolute silence in the boats, was drifting down the St. Lawrence with the attacking party on his way to victory and death. Says Stanhope:

"Not a word was spoken, not a sound was heard beyond the rippling of the stream. Wolfe alone—thus tradition has told us—repeated in a low voice to the other officers in his boat those beautiful stanzas with which a country churchyard inspired the muse of Gray. One noble line,

'The paths of glory lead but to the grave,' must have seemed at such a moment fraught with mournful meaning. At the close of the recitation Wolfe added, 'Now, gentlemen, I would rather be the author of that poem than take Quebec.'"

The story made a great appeal to the imagination of youth, and no edition of the Elegy has been complete without it. The line, which was so mournfully fraught, was sure to be starred, and at the foot of the page you would read, "On the morning of the assault on Quebec, Gen. James Wolfe repeated these lines to his officers and said, etc." Inevitably the higher critics must train their guns

on this stronghold of tradition. They based its incredibility upon the absurdity of the statement that a commanding general, after enjoining absolute silence, should endanger the success of his desperate enterprise by reciting one hundred and thirty-eight lines of poetry, however beautiful. Prof. Morris, in an article in the *English Historical Review*, has gone back to the contemporary accounts, and, after a thorough sifting of the evidence, concludes that the event undoubtedly took place, but that it occurred on the evening previous to the attack on the city. It is a relief to know that Wolfe did not disobey his own orders, and to learn that we may continue to cherish this precious anecdotal testimony to the comparative value of poetical and military fame.



In *ante bellum* political parlance "Mason and Dixon's Line" was as much a stock phrase as "16 to 1" has been in a campaign not so remote. The line originated in a family agreement between the heirs of William Penn of Penn's Woods and the heirs of Lord Baltimore in 1732. The boundary was to run from Cape Henlopen due west to a point midway between the Chesapeake and Delaware bays, thence northward until it touched a circle described about New Castle as a center with a twelve-mile radius. From this point in the latitude of fifteen miles south of Philadelphia, the line was to run due west. It was not until 1763 that the work of



IN DARKEST AFRICA.—*Minneapolis Journal*.

surveying the last named portion of the boundary was entrusted to Charles Mason and Jeremiah Dixon, two English engineers. They erected stone monuments at suitable intervals. They completed their survey for a distance of 244 miles west of the Delaware river. In 1767 the work was dropped. Some of the monuments have fallen or been broken and some have disappeared altogether. The line still divides the states of Pennsylvania and Maryland, but it no longer defines the limit of "the peculiar institution." The growing interest of this generation in the relics of the past has called attention to these moss-grown and dilapidated stones and the legislature of Pennsylvania has taken the necessary action for their restoration. The crumbling memorials may be restored, but no one would reestablish the social conditions which the names of the two surveyors so painfully recall.



The city of Paris is to be adorned with an equestrian statue of Washington, the gift to France of American women in commemoration of the aid rendered to this country by France in the hour of our dire need when seeking to throw off the British yoke. The statue, in bronze, is the work of Daniel C. French. Portions of it have already been cast in New York, and the statue will be completed in April. A particularly appropriate day — July 3 — has been selected as the time for the unveiling, as that day marks the anniversary of Washington's assumption of the command of the American forces at Cambridge; besides, that act is the very one which the statue is to represent. The statue is of heroic size, being about twenty-one feet in height to the point of the uplifted sword, and it will surmount a granite pedestal fourteen feet high. As a matter of patriotic sentiment, it may be noted that everything pertaining to the statue is American. The scheme was devised by American women, the sculptor is an American, the statue was cast in an American foundry, and the pedestal is of American design and manufacture. The municipality of Paris has designated a site for the statue on the beautiful Place d'Iéna, at the intersection of the Avenue d'Iéna and the Avenue du Trocadéro. The exercises of the unveiling will be participated in by many Americans who will be attracted to Paris during the summer by the Exposition. The ceremonies will naturally take on a military aspect, and it would not be inappropriate for the French army to take some part, in view of the

fact that Washington once held a commission as lieutenant-general of the French army. He was given his commission by Louis XIV. in order that there might be no clash of authority and rank between Washington and Rochambeau, who was also a lieutenant-general of France. The commission was brought to Washington by Lafayette.



While the rest of christendom is worrying over the problem of the calendar involved in the close of one century and the opening of another, Russia is in a ferment of its own. The Julian system of reckoning time, which Cæsar prescribed for the Roman Empire, has been superseded gradually since 1582, in the western world, by the reformed calendar of Pope Gregory XIII. Catholic Europe obeyed the papal decree without delay; but the Protestant nations were very reluctant to take the papal prescription and it was almost two hundred years before "New Style" took the place of "Old Style" in English chronology. In 1752, however, good sense triumphed in Parliament, and throughout England and her colonies eleven days were cut out of September, the third of that month being reckoned as the fourteenth. Slow as Protestantism was in admitting that any good thing — even in calendars — could come out of Rome, the lands of the Greek church have been still more conservative. Russia is "Old Style" yet, to the great confusion and considerable loss of Russian merchants doing business with western nations. The progressive element has recently made such forcible representations to the Czar that his interest in the matter has been aroused, and he has constituted an imperial commission to consider the proposed rectification of the calendar. The stronghold of the opposition is the hierarchy of the national church, for ages the consistent opponent of western ideas, and the bitter foe of whatever emanates from the Roman pontiff. The argument by which the Greek patriots have sought to engage popular sympathy is worthy of the Middle Ages. It is to be understood that the unregenerate calendar is now so far in arrears that thirteen days must be dropped from the reckoning to bring in the New Style. Each day is the festival of some Greek saint and the priests profess to stand aghast at the possible consequences of depriving thirteen saints at once of their holy day. It is reported, however, that the Czar is convinced of the necessity of the change and that it will shortly

be brought to pass, leaving the saints to shift for themselves for at least a twelve-month.

In pursuance of the policy of correlating C. L. S. C. books and special features of THE CHAUTAUQUAN in as helpful a manner as possible, Mrs. Florence Merriam Bailey, author of "Birds Through an Opera Glass," contributes a page of hints on bird study to



MRS. FLORENCE MERRIAM
BAILEY.

this issue of the magazine. This feature will continue to the end of the C. L. S. C. reading year. Mrs. Bailey's tastes and training have given her exceptional reputation, and her services by pen and voice are in constant demand in different sections of this country. Mrs. Bailey was born at Locust Grove, New York. She is a sister of Dr. C. Hart Merriam, ornithologist of the United States Department of Agriculture, and in her work has been aided and encouraged by him. While at Smith College she organized an Audubon Society for the protection of birds, and afterwards made a study of birds and bird-life not only at her home but also along the Pacific coast, and in Utah and Arizona. By careful, patient observation and field-work she accumulated a great deal of valuable information which has been published in her books, "Birds Through an Opera Glass," "My Summer in a Mormon Village," "A-Birding on a Broncho," and "Birds of Village and Field."

Prof. William L. Tomlins, who was the director of the Apollo Club, of Chicago, a well-known musical organization, for over thirteen years, is devoting himself now to the musical development of the people, and especially of the children. He declares that by music you can steady the flighty children, inspire the stolid, and fill them with high and holy purposes. Much of the teaching of our schools in vocal music is mechanical, unsympathetic, and therefore unfruitful of good and permanent results. Prof. Tomlins claims that

"To have a vital voice there must be in it three things—mind, heart and will. Having the mind to

sing, the mentality to use the voice is not sufficient. Our choirs and concerts already have too many of these mind singers. Then there is that voice of sentimentality, which feels but does not do, which meanders around in a semi-pathetic way. This quality is insufficient to the vital singer. There is still another voice, the precenator voice, without sympathy, the brute voice. This also is insufficient. That trinity of voice which makes singing vital corresponds to another trinity. Will corresponds to rhythm, mind to melody, heart to harmony. These come to the race. They come also to the child, for the child is the epitome of the race. Every child has rhythm, the starting point. It may be only brute rhythm, but it is rhythm, and by music you can guide the vitality of the child."

He draws the comparison between two classes of children, one representative of bounding, open, hearty life, and the other of repressed, straightened, mechanical existence:

"I have boys from Avenues A and B, from the Ghetto, from the humbler districts of the east side. While they are waiting for the singing class they roll and tumble and wrestle in the gutter and come in to sing, red in the face, with their blood tingling. I have another school where the children are brought by governesses and nurses, who help them off with their things. Nice children, too; but, having everything done for them, there is less necessity for individual effort. I cannot call on them as I can on the boys of Avenue B. They don't respond like the little fellows with red faces and rumpled hair."

In connection with the service Prof. Tomlins is seeking to render to the children of the land in the matter of musical training, as well as of a life of larger freedom and less artificiality, it is worthy of note that the supervisor of music in the public schools of Detroit has completed a series of experiments which give promise that singing with a good degree of accuracy may be taught to the deaf. The method of instruction is simple. The deaf children are gathered about a piano, with their hands or arms resting upon the instrument. As the playing proceeds the children begin to count in correct time with the music, the vibration of the wood giving them the accentuation of the beats. Soon some of the children give indications that they have caught the tune, and after repeating the same piece many times they all give manifestations of the same character. Other experiments have been employed with most encouraging results, even in cases where the hearing was hopelessly impaired.

The Department of the Interior has recently published a wall map of the United States, prepared under the direction of the Commissioner of the General Land Office, 4 feet 11 inches by 7 feet 2 inches in size, mounted on muslin and attached to rollers

ready for immediate use. In addition to the features ordinarily characterizing maps of the country, on this are shown by clearly defined boundaries the several acquisitions of territory upon this continent by the Government of the United States as determined by the latest investigations, together with all military, Indian and forest reservations. It is supplied by the Department at eighty cents per copy, the cost of printing, mounting, etc. The law permits the sale of only one copy to any individual, but to schools and other institutions as many copies can be furnished as are desired for separate buildings or departments. The department also publishes small maps about 2½ by 3 feet, unmounted, of the several states and territories in which public lands of the United States are located, which are sold at 12 cents per sheet.



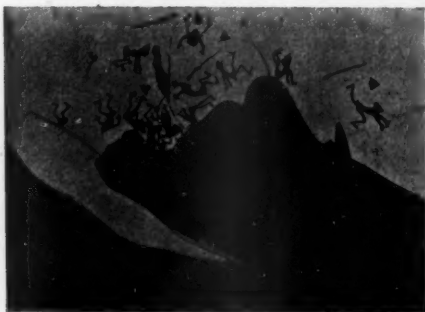
So high Roman Catholic authority as Archbishop Keane, speaking directly for Pope Leo XIII., says that Catholics are acting upon the belief that the intellectual contest of the future is going to be, not as heretofore, one of sectarian controversy, but a great struggle between Christianity and Agnosticism for the control of the world's intellect. This struggle is to be fought out in the universities of the world, and it was to make preparation for it that unusual attention began to be given by Catholic authorities to education in America. The number of Catholic colleges now reaches 131, and it was to crown these that the Catholic University at Washington was established. This university was placed where it is in order that it might be national in its influence; or, as the papal instructions were, "to give tone to the Catholic clergy and people of the United States, and to make that tone the highest intel-

lectuality, pervaded by the highest Christianity." The Roman Catholic Church, according to Archbishop Keane, is acting upon the theory that the greatest need of the future is Christian education, for education is to be the greatest power in the world's future.

Archbishop Keane says that American Catholic conditions demand an authorized representative at Rome at all times, but nevertheless he consents to give two years to the raising of another \$1,000,000 for the university endowment, to supplement the plant gathered during the ten years of its existence, and now valued at fully \$2,000,000. Speaking of the contest in question, the archbishop gives the Catholic point of view, when he says: "The nineteenth century opened under the influence of the sneering, atheistic philosophy of Voltaire. It closes with Voltaire buried in the contempt which his superficial sneering deserved. Agnosticism does not now sneer, but it doubts. But the philosophy which says 'I do not know' can never meet the requirements of humanity. There is no question that the outcome of the twentieth century will be the victory, not of Agnosticism and the philosophy of darkness, but of Christianity and the philosophy of light. For the winning of that victory the Catholic University is meant to be the chief agency in the United States."



There seems now to be no doubt that the Roman Curia uphold the decision of the French Superior to the effect that Christian Brothers schools in America, about thirty in number, and of the secondary and collegiate grades, shall not continue to teach the classics. The decision strains the American Catholic's loyalty, as did the recent letter of the Pope regarding the Hecker book, but



"DER SPIONKOPP."—*Kladderadatsch, Berlin.*

(Look for profile of Oom Fag!.)

there are no indications of revolt. This is a remarkable exhibition of loyal machinery, or of machine loyalty, whichever the reader prefers, since the entire Catholic educational influence of America, officially backed by the American archbishops, fails to outweigh the decision of the French Superior. Last year, in the first conference of Catholic Colleges, the Christian Brothers refrained from taking part, and they will not be represented in the second one, to be held in Chicago on the Wednesday and Thursday of Easter week this year. These conferences are held for the purpose of bringing secondary and collegiate schools better into line with the university at Washington. Those outside the Catholic church say there will be a new American order to carry on the Christian Brothers schools; those inside that there will be nothing done at present, but an easy way exists out of the difficulty.

Two notable characteristics have marked the religious situation this winter. One of them is the extraordinary number of croakers. These faultfinders have not been confined to writers in newspapers, but have appeared in pulpits. Charges have been widely made that the churches are run on a financial not a spiritual basis. Men in commanding positions have advertised the vast numbers, guessed at generally, who do not go to church. The successor of Henry Ward Beecher has said that the influence of the pulpit is waning. And hundreds of speakers and writers, some in pulpits and some in religious newspapers, have sought to explain an alleged decline in religious faith.

The other notable thing of the winter has been the great number of accessions to the churches. These have not been confined to any particular religious body, or to any section of the country. Both Sunday and special services have been uniformly well attended. The Keswick teaching, a highly spiritual one, whatever may be thought of its tenets and methods, has made steady progress. Offerings for foreign missions were never larger. All but one board is out of debt, a proportion unprecedented, all of them report markedly increased receipts. The Methodist Episcopal Quadrennium will show receipts for the missionary society in seven figures and the seventh figure a five for the first time. Unsalaries workers in the churches steadily increase in number. The Church of the Ascension, New York, has 387 persons in its member-

ship who are giving, apart from money, some of their energies, time and interest to the advancement of the kingdom of God. This number does not include teachers in Sunday-school. Reports from other churches, the Metropolitan Methodist, New York, the Washington and Compton Avenue Presbyterian, St. Louis, St. Stephen's Episcopal, Boston, the First Baptist, Chicago, the Grace Baptist, Philadelphia—all of these report a larger number of workers than ever before. All these workers are not distributing alms, nor planning social entertainments. They are, in their several ways, preaching Jesus Christ. These facts are obtained at first hands by investigation. Where croakers get their blue-Monday material is not quite clear.

The feature of the past year among Baptists of the North is the enlarged educational work for negroes. This has consisted, besides improvements at Spelman Seminary, Atlanta, in the removal of institutions at Washington, Lynchburg and Petersburg, to Richmond, and the erection there of new and splendid buildings, to house the Virginia Union University. These buildings, into which northern gifts have been poured with a liberal hand, cover a magnificent campus, ideally located in a suburb. All of the usual buildings that go to make a complete foundation, including even a president's house, are here, the whole being one of the best plants ever provided for the educational uplift of negro youth. So far as now appears, the feature of the Baptist May Anniversaries, which are held this year in Detroit, will be educational, with these buildings at Richmond as the evidence of progress.

Up to the first week in February twelve hundred delegates had reported to the hospitality committee of the Ecumenical Conference on Foreign Missions; a number taken by those who know to mean that the conference will have above two thousand members and be the largest ever held. All but one of the great English and Scottish missionary societies will be represented, and almost all of the continental European ones of importance. The program is well advanced. In its arrangement a very distinct aim is followed, viz.: How best to approach, influence and instruct people of non-Christian nations, to the end that more may be accomplished in future on a given expenditure than has been accomplished heretofore.

TOPICS OF THE HOUR.*

[Note.—In the daily deluge of books and articles the average reader is hopelessly overwhelmed. Complete lists of references to current magazines and recent volumes are of value only to specialists. The busy person who wishes to be reasonably conversant with the leading questions of the day has no time for wide reading, and is too likely to be discouraged by an exhaustive "bibliography." THE CHAUTAUQUAN will seek to serve its subscribers by calling attention each month to a list of representative books, and typical articles which deal with the different phases of some one topic of current interest.]

VI.—COLLEGE, SOCIAL AND UNIVERSITY SETTLEMENTS.

BIBLIOGRAPHIES AND PERIODICALS. "Bibliography of College, Social and University Settlements." Compiled by J. P. Gavit, for the College Settlement Association. Third edition revised and enlarged. (Coöperative Press, Cambridge, 1897; 35c.) Contains the following items pertaining to settlements: (1) An account of the College Settlement Association; (2) a short introductory chapter on the theory and history of social settlements; (3) a select bibliography of settlements; (4) a short account of every university in the world so far as known, with a select bibliography appended to each; (5) index to the whole. The bibliographies are less complete than in the 1895 edition, but are ample for nearly all purposes. A valuable handbook.

"Bibliography of College, Social and University Settlements." By M. Katherine Jones. (College Settlement Association, 1895.) Contains a practically complete list of all that has been written about settlements in general and about particular settlements. The work of Hull House seems to have occasioned the most discussion in print. The list occupies two pages of fine print. The publication also contains a short history of most of the settlements.

"Settlement Movement." A bibliography. (*Municipal Affairs*, March, 1897, p. 114.) A good selection of literature pertaining to settlements. This bibliography is kept up to date in the current issues of this periodical. Consult "Settlement Movement" in the Bibliographical Index.

Mansfield House Magazine: the organ of the University and Women's Settlements in Canning Town, East London. (Mansfield House, Canning Town, E., 2s. 6d per year.) This publication was started in 1894. It contains notes and news from settlements, especially those of London, and other matter pertaining to questions which interest residents in settlements. Nearly all the settlements publish annual reports which are indispensable for a close study of the settlement question.

The Commons, a monthly record devoted to aspects of life and labor from the settlement point of view. Edited by J. P. Gavit. (Chicago Commons, Chicago; 50c. per year.) Published since April, 1896. Contains all the latest news as to settlement matters. Often contains valuable matter as to other social reform movements and questions. The recognized organ of the settlement movement in the United States.

Books: "Social Settlements." By C. R. Henderson. (Sentilhorn & Co., New York, 1899; 50c.) Covers in short space the history, theory and present prospects of social settlements. Contains lists of settlements arranged in the chronological order of the dates of their foundation, a tabulation of the varieties of educational and ameliorative work now being carried on in settlements, directions for establishing a settlement, etc. In it will be found all the material neces-

sary to a thorough understanding of social settlements.

"The Universities and the Social Problem: an account of the University Settlements in East London." Edited by J. M. Knapp. (Rivington, Percival & Co., London, 1895; \$1.) Contains essays by Sir John Gorst, S. A. Barnett, Percy Alden, and ten other writers. Some of these deal with the work of particular settlements, others with important aspects of settlement work in general, such as workmen's clubs, local administration, children's holiday funds, charity organization, thrift, social intercourse. A valuable collection.

"Philanthropy and Social Progress," seven essays delivered before the School of Applied Ethics, 1892. By Jane Addams, R. A. Woods, J. O. S. Huntington, F. H. Giddings and Bernard Bosanquet. (T. Y. Crowell & Co., Boston, 1893; \$1.50.) The volume contains three essays on social settlements: "Subjective Necessity for Social Settlements," by James Adams; "Objective Value of Social Settlements," by Jane Addams; "University Settlement Idea," by R. A. Woods. These articles are perhaps the best exposition of the philosophy and theory of social settlements.

"Practicable Socialism." By Samuel A. and Henrietta Barnett. Second edition revised and enlarged. (Longmans, Green & Co., London, 1894; \$1.50.) One chapter only is specifically devoted to social settlements. But the whole work deals with questions which settlements have to face and is written from the settlement point of view. Mr. Barnett has been head worker at Toynbee Hall since its foundation in 1885. The essays in the book will be found very suggestive.

"English Social Movements." By R. A. Woods. (Chas. Scribner's Sons, New York, 1891; \$1.50.) Contains a long and valuable essay on "Settlements," also other essays on subjects closely related to settlement work.

"Arnold Toynbee." A reminiscence. By Alfred Milner. (Edward Arnold, London, 1895; 2s. 6d.) An address delivered at Toynbee Hall by a classmate of Toynbee. A clear and satisfactory characterization.

"Arnold Toynbee." By F. C. Montague. (Johns Hopkins University Studies in History and Political Science, 7th series, 1892, No. 1.) A sympathetic account of the life of Toynbee. By way of appendix there are included descriptions of the work being done at Toynbee Hall and at the Neighborhood Guild in New York.

"Letters and other Writings of the late Edward Denison." Edited by Sir Baldwin Leighton. (Wm. Isbister, London, 1888; 1s.) These letters give now and then clear insight into the spirit which Denison put into his work and the problems which confronted him.

"Hull House Maps and Papers." A presentation of

*The following "Topics of the Hour" have been covered: I. The Philippine Problem, October. II. England and the South African Problem, November. III. Trusts, December. IV. The Higher Criticism, January. V. Woman Labor and Child Labor, February.

nationalities and wages in a congested district of Chicago, together with comments and essays on problems growing out of the social conditions. By residents of Hull House. (T. Y. Crowell & Co., New York, 1895; \$2.50.) This collection contains only two papers which deal with settlements specifically. "The Settlement as a Factor in the Labor Movement," by Jane Addams; "Hull House, a Social Settlement." The latter forms an appendix and gives a full and interesting account of the work done at Hull House. All the papers are valuable contributions and go to show that all settlement work is not "amateurish."

"The Literature of Philanthropy." Edited by Frances A. Goodale. (Harper & Brothers, New York, 1893; \$1.) Contains several essays by women on University Settlements and allied topics.

"Neighborhood Guilds, an Instrument of Social Reform." By Stanton Coit. (Swan Sonnenschein & Co., London, 1892; \$1.) An exposition of Dr. Coit's scheme to cover whole cities with a system of clubs organized by neighborhoods, each of these clubs to do practically the same work which is now being done by the settlement. The book tells of the work being done by the guilds started by the author in New York and London, and discusses in a very suggestive manner the need for and the method of doing such work.

ARTICLES IN PERIODICALS AND ENCYCLOPEDIAS: "University Settlements," "Woman's College Settlements." (Encyclopedia of Social Reform, edited by W. D. P. Bliss.) Valuable for facts and points of view. The latter contains a very satisfactory account of the organization and work of the College Settlement Association. Short articles on many of those prominently identified with the settlement movement are included in this work.

"University Settlements." (Johnson's Cyclopedia.) A good general article.

"The Universities and the Poor." By S. H. Barnett. (Nineteenth Century, February, 1884.) A strong plea for the establishment of university settlements and a discussion of methods and possibilities. One of Mr. Barnett's pleas which eventuated in the establishment of Toynbee Hall.

"University Settlements." By Rev. S. H. Barnett. (Eclectic Magazine, February, 1896.) Finds the origin of the settlement movement in the distrust of institution and machinery as a means of ameliorating social ills, (this distrust being especially felt by those who were influenced by T. H. Green) and in a growing movement of the human spirit. Discusses the work at Toynbee Hall and wherein this work has benefited Whitechapel.

"Ways of Settlements and of Missions." By Rev. S. H. Barnett. (Nineteenth Century, December, 1897.) Makes a plea for a distinction between missions and settlements. Affirms that the object of missions is to make converts to some faith or practice, while that of settlements is to promote social knowledge and intercourse between different classes of people. Goes on to show the benefit to the individuals and society of such intercourse.

"Jacob's Answer to Esau's Cry." By Brooke Lambert. (Contemporary Review, September, 1884.) A plea for support for the new movement for university settlements and a discussion of the plans proposed for Toynbee Hall and Oxford House.

"The University Settlement Idea." By R. A. Woods. (Andover Review, October, 1892.) Reprinted in "Philanthropy and Social Progress." See above.

"University Settlements, their Point and Drift." By R. A. Woods. (Quarterly Journal of Economics, November, 1899.) Finds that settlements are now tending to produce especially valuable results, as laboratories for social investigation and experiment. The results are appearing in such publications as "Hull

House Maps and Papers," "The City Wilderness," and magazine articles based on close observation of social and political life by settlement residents; also in the actual participation of residents in movements for better city government.

"University Settlements." By Edward Cummings. (Quarterly Journal of Economics, April, 1892.) A searching criticism of settlement work, especially that done at Toynbee Hall. Makes the point that the residents are too luxurious and their work too "amateurish." Deplores that their investigations into the condition of the poorer classes have resulted in so little that is definite in the way of statistics. A long and suggestive article.

"Social Settlements." (The Spectator, February 19, 1898.) Discusses the aim of the settlement, the danger of priggishness in settlement residents, etc. Concludes that settlements are on the whole doing good work by permitting the educated class to see that there is no well defined poorer class and that happiness is largely a matter of temperament and health.

"Testimony of Past Residents in College Settlements." (Publications of the Church Social Union, September 15, 1896.) Report based on answers to questions submitted to past residents. The answers are very suggestive and are a strong endorsement of settlement work. No less suggestive are the answers to questions asking what reforms are most practical and most urgent. An abstract of this report may be found in the American Journal of Sociology, March, 1897, (p. 620.)

"The Place of College Settlements." By Vida D. Scudder. (Andover Review, October, 1892.) A defense of settlements against the criticism of "amateurishness," and a discussion of the facts and possibilities of settlement life. Describes the writer's experience in visiting families in the slums with a policeman, and contrasts it with the reception accorded to settlement workers. A valuable article.

"Social Amelioration and the University Settlement," with special reference to Toynbee Hall. By S. J. McLean. (Canadian Magazine, April, 1897.) Discusses the beginnings of the settlement movement with Kingsley, Maurice, Green and Toynbee. Lays special emphasis on the work at Toynbee Hall, lead by S. H. Barnett, and that at Hull House, lead by Miss Jane Addams. Finds that they agree in ignoring the formal side of religion and are unlike in that at Toynbee Hall nearly all the work is done by men, while at Hull House it is nearly all done by women.

"Scientific Value of Social Settlements." By H. F. Hegner. (American Journal of Sociology, September, 1897.) Discusses the settlement movement in general. Shows the broadening effect of residence at the settlement. Some saloon-keepers found to be good citizens. The function of the settlement that of a social clearing-house where all classes can meet on common ground.

"Trained Workers for the Poor." By Octavia Hill. (Nineteenth Century, January, 1893.) A plea for trained women workers as friendly visitors. Proposes that such workers take a course of training and residence at the Woman's University Settlement in London.

"A Day at Hull House." By Dorothea Moore. (American Journal of Sociology, March, 1897.) An interesting description of the work done, with photographic illustrations of the house, classes, etc. Contains a bibliography of Hull House.

"Women in New York Settlements." By Mary M. Kingsbury. "Women's Work in Boston Settlements." By Helen S. Dudley. "Women's Work for Chicago: Social Settlements." By Jane Addams. (Municipal Affairs, September, 1898.) These articles contain an interesting exposition of the work of women as separated from that of men in settlement work.

A SOUTHERN POET: HENRY TIMROD.

BY STOCKTON AXSON.

(Associate Professor of English Literature, Princeton University.)

Henry Timrod was one of the poets whose achievements are but unfulfilled promises of what might have been under happier conditions. Everything was against him: poverty, drudgery which consumed his energies, persistent ill health, shortness of life, and political and social conditions uncongenial to the production of the style of poetry which was natural to him.

He lived as long as Burns and Byron, but he met with none of the popular encouragement which stimulated their creative faculties. He was happier than they in that his misfortunes were not of his own sowing. But it was his lot to sing to inattentive ears. His southern neighbors were engrossed with the disasters of war, and his fame did not penetrate the north. To this day his name is little known beyond the boundaries of the old south. And yet he was a genuine poet, though not a great one. He had imagination and, what is less common, he had conscientious skill in poetic expression.

His friend and biographer, Paul H. Hayne, assures us that Timrod inherited poetic talent from his father, but Mr. Hayne makes the mistake of supporting his assertion by printing some of the elder man's verses. We might have believed that William Timrod was a poet if we had not read his poetry. In Henry Timrod's own productions there is better evidence that the son was born a poet.

Verse-making, however, had to be incidental to more mundane pursuits. After a course of study at the University of Georgia, young Timrod returned to his native city, Charleston, and began the study of law, attracted to the profession, like many young men of the south, not by any specific fitness for it, but by a vague impression that it is an intellectual pursuit. His sensitive, dreaming disposition foredoomed him to failure, and we are not surprised to learn that the eminent lawyer in whose office he studied pronounced him "a fool." So Timrod gave up law and became a private tutor, and subsequently a contributor to local journals.

And then came the war. It was not the least of his misfortunes that he was caught in the vortex of secession passions. He was

not born to be a warrior, nor yet a singer of war. He went to the front as a correspondent, but one who knew him has said: "The story of his camp life would furnish a theme for mirth, if our laughter were not choked by tears. One can scarcely conceive a situation more hopelessly wretched than that of this child, as it were, suddenly flung down into the heart of that stormy retreat."

The details of the ludicrous picture here hinted at are not obtainable, but it is matter of record that Timrod quickly left the army, sick at heart and dazed by the brutality of war. He went to Columbia, where he undertook to edit a daily paper in which he had a proprietary interest.

It may be that another story would please us better. As our memory reaches back into that testing period, it is likely that our admiration goes to the men of coarser fiber who could take part in the conflict without blenching. Perhaps we like Timrod least in the mood which inspired his poem "Retirement":

"There is a wisdom that grows up in strife,
And one—I like it best—that sits at home
And learns its lessons of a thoughtful ease."

We may wish that he had not chosen the more quiescent school of wisdom. But we may not contend against nature's designs; when she forged the heart and twined the nerves of Timrod, she seemed to have no thought of approaching war.

He was destined, however, to experience something more of the conflict, for though he went to war no more, the war came to him. General Sherman went uninvited to Columbia and proved himself, as Henry Grady said, "an able man, but kind of careless about fire." Timrod, being the editor of a secession paper, had to lie in concealment during the army's occupation of the ruined town. After the whirlwind had passed he wrote a letter to Hayne, from which disconnected portions are here reproduced:

"You ask me to tell you my story for the last year. I can embody it all in a few words: beggary, starvation, death [of his child], bitter grief, utter want of hope! You know, I suppose, that the Sherman raid destroyed my business. Since that time I have been residing with my sister, Mrs. Goodwin. Both my sister and myself are completely impoverished. We have lived for a long

period, and are still living, on the proceeds of the gradual sale of furniture and plate. We have—let me see—yes, we have eaten two silver pitchers, one or two dozen silver forks, several sofas, innumerable chairs, and a huge bedstead.

"Until December I had no employment. Mr. — called on me, informed me that he was going to re-establish his paper in Charleston, and promised that I should have my old interest in it. I have now hacked on for four months, and as yet have failed to receive a single month's pay. The plain truth is Mr. — can't pay."

"As for supporting myself and a large family—wife, mother, sisters and nieces, by literary work—'tis utterly preposterous. I not only feel that I can write no more verse, but I am perfectly indifferent to the fate of what I have already composed. I would consign every line of it to eternal oblivion for one hundred dollars in hand."

Hard as the war bore upon the man, it bore yet harder upon his genius. He wrote war poetry, but in martial fervor it is inferior to much that was produced at the same time by men of far slighter poetic gift. He had none of the exultant battle fury which is as necessary to the military bard as it is to the military captain. One of his most notable poems, "Carolina," by its theme, its intent and its metrical structure, challenges comparison with "My Maryland." The latter may not be great art, but it is soldier-poetry, written by one who had felt the thrill of battle. It is the sort of fierce hymn that might be read aloud for the heartening of soldiers under fire in the trenches, as the battle description in "The Lady of the Lake" was read by a Scotch commander to his men on the lines of Torres Vedras. Mr. Hayne tells us that he read "Carolina" to his edification one wild March evening while walking on the battlements of Fort Sumter. But, besides being a soldier, Mr. Hayne was a Carolinian, a friend of the writer, and a poet. The circumstances were almost too favorable to admit of his judgment being critical. It is doubtful if the common soldier with none of these predispositions would be greatly thrilled. Even "Cossack and Russian" would feel their pulses beat quicker to "The Charge of the Light Brigade" if they could understand the language. The test of martial poetry is that it quicken the circulation, and "Carolina" does not.

There is better poetry in "The Cotton Boll," a description, steeped in the veritable atmosphere of southern landscape, which concludes with a prayer for final victory. But here the strain is ethical, not martial. It is one of the best of Timrod's poems that have reference to war, and it is unfortunate that it should contain a prediction that the

south would dictate terms of peace to the north,

"There where some rotting ships and crumbling quays
Shall one day mark the port which ruled the western
seas,"

in other words, in the harbor of ruined New York City. A poet is on safe prophetic ground only when he is forecasting past events, as did Gray in "The Bard," of which he remarked that the prophecy must be true, seeing that it was made so many centuries after its fulfilment.

A striking stanza in the poem "Charleston" shows how aloof from the absorbing ferocity of war Timrod's spirit was:

"And down the dunes a thousand guns lie couched,
Unseen beside the flood—
Like tigers in some Orient jungle crouched
That wait and watch for blood."

Obviously the simile is that of a poet who stands apart and observes with an eye for picturesque detail, not that of a fighting man damp with blood and sweat, and hot to get at the enemy.

Timrod's real feeling toward war,—the horror, the shame, the ruin of it,—creeps time and again into his non-martial verse, as in the poem "Spring" with its exquisite opening lines,

"Spring with that nameless pathos in the air
Which dwells with all things fair,"

and its shuddering conclusion:

"Oh! standing on this desecrated mould,
Methinks that I behold,
Lifting her bloody daisies up to God,
Spring kneeling on the sod."

"And calling with the voice of all her rills,
Upon the ancient hills
To fall and crush the tyrants and the slaves
Who turn her meads to graves."

And again we have it in yet more pathetic tones in the poem "Christmas," with its insistent cry for peace:

"He, who, till time shall cease,
Will watch the earth, where once, not all in vain,
He died to give us peace, may not disdain
A prayer whose theme is—peace."

"Perhaps ere yet the spring
Hath died into the summer, over all
The land, the peace of His vast love shall fall,
Like some protecting wing."

"Peace in the quiet dales,
Made rankly fertile by the blood of men,
Peace in the woodland and the lonely glen,
Peace in the peopled vales!"

"Peace on the whirling marts,
Peace where the scholar thinks, the hunter roams,
Peace, God of Peace! peace, peace, in all our homes,
And peace in all our hearts!"

The sentiment which is here rendered poetic is the same as that expressed in prose in a letter to Hayne. "What think you of the war? Shall we ever see its end, favorable or unfavorable, glorious or fatal?"

This "favorable or unfavorable, glorious or fatal" contains an implication that Timrod was not of the stuff that filled the ragged ranks of Lee's army during that last desperate campaign when defeat had long been, not a probability, but an accomplished fact. It was Timrod's crowning misfortune that, framed all for gentleness, he was cast upon a time of turbulence. He was not made for war, but the best of his life and much of his thoughts were occupied with war.

His talent was for nature-poetry. America has produced no poet with a truer feeling for the outward beauty and inner mystery of the natural world. In lines which vividly recall similar confessions of Wordsworth and Shelley, he reminds nature how this passion for her awoke in him:

"When first I felt thy breath upon my brow,
Tears of strange ecstasy gushed out like rain,
And with a longing, passionate as vain,
I strove to clasp thee."

His most ambitious, but not very successful composition, "A Vision of Poesy," contains similar descriptions of the awakening of a poet's soul under the touch of nature. This passion never forsook him and it has found expression in a few poems that should not perish.

A mistaken comparison has been made between Timrod and Keats. They had nothing in common save unhappiness and early death from consumption. The true comparison is with Wordsworth and Tennyson. Timrod was an avowed disciple of Wordsworth, and how much of the spirit and manner of his master he caught may be seen in "The Summer Bower," from which only a few random lines can be quoted here:

"It is a place whither I've often gone
For peace, and found it, secret, hushed, and cool,
A beautiful recess in neighboring woods.
Trees of the soberest hues, thick-leaved and tall,
Arch it o'erhead and column it around.

* * * * *

Sound is here
A transient and unfrequent visitor;
Yet, if the day be calm, not often then,
Whilst the high pines in one another's arms
Sleep, you may sometimes with unstartled ear
Catch the far fall of voices, how remote
You know not, and you do not care to know.

* * * * *

Thither I always bent my idle steps,
When griefs depressed, or joys disturbed my heart,
And found the calm I looked for, or returned
Strong with the quiet rapture in my soul."

This poem, in its healthy attitude of receptivity to nature, its simplicity and sincerity, its unadorned description, the tranquil flow of its blank verse,—is as "Wordsworthian" as an original poet should wish his productions to be. In the last line quoted,

"Strong with the quiet rapture in my soul,"

there is a pellucid calm, and quiet dignity of expression of which Wordsworth himself need not have been ashamed.

Though Timrod has something of Wordsworthian simplicity, he has not Wordsworth's high austerity of manner. There is in some of his verse a grace and tenderness that suggest Tennyson. Occasionally he is too much under the magic of Tennyson's influence, for he sometimes loses his individuality in a mere echo of the greater poet. Unhappily this is true of one of his sweetest lyrics, "Hark to the Shouting Wind," which is too plainly a reflection of "Break, Break." But at other times, as in some of the stanzas of "Christmas," there is a Tennysonian strain which one feels is not due to conscious imitation. Presumably referring to St. Michael's bells, he says:

"Shame to the foes that drown
Our psalms of worship with their impious drum,
The sweetest chimes in all the land lie dumb
In some far rustic town.

"There, let us think, they keep
Of the dead Yules which here beside the sea
They've ushered in with old-world, English glee,
Some echoes in their sleep."

In addition to the obvious grace of this, one seems to detect something of that mysterious undertone, that subtle charm, that dim suggestion of beauty unexpressed, of which Tennyson was the supreme master.

It is scarcely necessary to say that no attempt is made here to establish for Timrod a claim to the title of "American Wordsworth," or "American Tennyson." In the first place, Timrod was only a minor poet, while the Englishmen belong to the *dii majores*. In the second place, there is little of compliment and less of good sense in the habit of calling an author by some other author's name. The multitudes of "American Dickenses" and "American Kiplings" need not feel greatly flattered. Unless an author stand on his own merits he must fall. Like most minor singers, Timrod echoes many foregone poets, Tom Moore, the Cavalier lyrists, and even Pope; and sometimes he droops into the barren platitude of which no poet has a monopoly. But he had a true affinity with Wordsworth and Tennyson, and

sometimes, without suspicion of imitation, his poetry suggests theirs. In speaking of one so little known, it is convenient to call attention to his resemblance to those who are so well known. If he frequently speaks in the tones of Wordsworth and Tennyson, he generally redeems himself from the charge of mere imitation by projecting his own sweet personality into his verse.

Next to external nature, his chief source of inspiration was in his own loves, for "Katie," the English girl who became his wife, and for the boy who was born of the union and died in babyhood. In his poems to the "Fair Saxon," Miss Goodwin, there is a chivalric reverence which should belong to all true lovers, and a gentle humor which does not always belong to lovers. Sometimes love-poetry is on stilts, but Timrod's never is; it is simple, sincere, and gladly spontaneous.

This spontaneity is generally under the restraint of a well-considered art too rare in the minor verse of the south. From an essay which Timrod wrote on the nature of poetry, we learn that he had a just sense of the necessity and dignity of studied art. Replying to the objection that the sonnet is artificial and restricted, he points out that all poetic form is an artifice, but an artifice which imposes just the restriction that is necessary to the production of true poetry, which is not the unlicensed expression of the first passionate impulse, but a subsequent adaptation of that impulse to preordained forms of expression. A trite enough observation, but one that is manifestly disregarded in the practice of many hectic minor poets who seem to interpret too literally the assertion of the late laureate that he, the most patient practitioner of art, "sings but as the linnet sings." Timrod's own sonnets are

an interesting commentary on his theories. They reveal a careful workmanship which places them in the not overcrowded class of the best American sonnets.

It is primarily this care for the craftsmanship of his art which warrants the prediction that had Timrod lived longer and been less ground in the mills of adversity, he might have been a first-rate American poet. There is no evidence that he was an original thinker. He propounds no new problems and is not careful to scrutinize the old. In this respect he is in suggestive contrast to Edward Rowland Sill, another minor American poet, who fought death for weary years and succumbed before the fullness of time. Sill is typical of much that is New England, as Timrod is typical of much that is southern. The perplexities of New England thought, the moral and spiritual paradox which New England gleaned from Concord philosophy, inspired much of Sill's most interesting verse. The simpler emotions, which in the south have for the most part been unsalloyed by the pale cast of thought, woke Timrod's muse. He is not an "intellectual" poet, but he has that clear spiritual insight which sometimes produces the effect of thought. And when this is under the discipline of his intelligent art, he is at his best.

When at his best, he is a worthy second to Lanier. In view of these men, the assertion sometimes made that the south has produced no poetry is manifestly unfair.

[The memorial edition of Timrod's poems is published by Houghton, Mifflin & Company, for \$1.50. A sketch of Timrod, with further selections from his poems, is published in the series of "Pioneers of Southern Literature," edited by Professor S. A. Link; pamphlet No. 3, 10 cents. A bound volume containing seven pamphlets of this series, including Paul H. Hayne, Ticknor, Simms, Kennedy, Cooke, Poe and other poets of the south, can also be procured for 85 cents, from The Chautauqua Press, Cleveland, Ohio.]



"LINGUISTIC CONSCIENCE"—CRITICISM AND REPLY.

The plea for a "linguistic conscience," made by Carolyn Shipman in *THE CHAUTAUQUAN* for January, seems timely and should appeal to every one; for so common are the mistakes noted, and so general the tendency to wander from the narrow path of linguistic purity, that they are, indeed, few that can claim freedom from such errors.

That there is need of some means of reform is evident; but, though there are few of us that are true to our own standard of what is best in language, it is safe to predict that a tender "linguistic conscience," alone, will never bring about the desired reformation. As a proof of this we need look no farther than to the article to which we have just referred. No one would attribute ignorance to the author, much less, under the circumstances, would he charge her with a lack of "linguistic conscience;" nevertheless, measured by accepted standards, the whole production from beginning to end bristles with errors and inelegancies.

This may seem a rash assertion, but it is easily substantiated. In order to be perfectly fair in the matter, I gave the paper to a class of young men who expect to enter college next year, and asked them to make every improvement possible, but to make no changes that were not in accordance with generally accepted principles. The following is the result:

1. "And so it is with your college men, as far as I have observed them."
2. "A knowledge of correct English is presupposed in college, as it should be." (In college, a knowledge of correct English is presupposed, as it should be.)
3. "Adjusts itself gradually." (Gradually adjusts itself.)
4. "Thus he learns to speak the French language, in the only practical way, by the natural method." (Thus he learns by the natural method, the only practical way, to speak the French language.)
5. "The guides in matters of speech are educated men and women, either professional teachers or people of culture." (Are there no cultured teachers?)
6. "Certainly trained men and women should habitually speak good English, pronounce words correctly, and observe," etc. (Can they speak good English if they do not *pronounce* correctly?)
7. "It seems to me illiterate." (Shows the writer to be illiterate.)
8. "Either from carelessness, or from indifference, or, worst of all, from ignorance," etc. (Either should be used with only two things.)
9. "The amount of time required is," etc. (The time required is, etc.)
10. "Chemistry teacher." (Teacher of chemistry.)

11. "In every class, then, I contend that, no matter what the subject, teachers should correct mispronunciation and bad grammar." (I contend then, that in every class, no matter what the subject, teachers should correct mispronunciation and bad grammar.)

12. "I once heard the teacher allow a pupil in reading to stumble over a word, . . . with no attempt at correction." (Under the circumstances how could the teacher be heard?)

13. "All the good which they learn in school." (All the good that they learn in school.)

14. "It seems not to be confined to any part of the country nor to any class of people." (It seems to be confined, not to any part of the country, nor to any class of people.)

15. "Fifteen different people are represented." (Fifteen people, etc. From necessity they are different.)

16. "I wondered if the teacher were ignorant, or only napping." (I wondered whether the teacher were ignorant or only napping.)

17. "In society at large." (In society.)

There were several more, but I have given enough. Some of these errors seem trivial, but they all help to show that the evil noted by Miss Shipman is more general than even she imagined. But it is not wholly evil. Ours is a living language and new words are constantly coming into use, only to be discarded if they can not prove their right to be. But if they are words that give clearness to thought, if they make the language more vigorous, or in any way add strength to it, they will be retained. The "hybrids," the "slang," the "solecisms" even, of one age, are received as of the blood royal in another, and his is a thankless task who would try to prove them otherwise; for after all is said it is use that determines what is good English.

Although we may expect changes that will not be agreeable to us, and they will be the less so as we grow older, there is need for all to watch lest such changes be made without cause.

Right here let me say there seems to be too much expected from the secondary schools. We are expected to send a boy to college with more language, more science, more mathematics, in fact more of everything, excepting Greek, than was required for graduation a few decades ago. If we fail to do this we are anathematized by the parents because we cannot make brains, and by the colleges because we cannot put a mature mind into a boy of eighteen. But once get the boy into college we hear nothing more about poor teaching. The methods of

instruction may be poorer than those of any secondary school, yet they are above criticism. If there is failure now it is because the boy was not properly prepared or because the Lord made a fool.

But why should it be assumed that a boy entering college has a thorough knowledge of English? It would be equally wise to assume him to be skilled in mathematics merely because he was born with ten fingers. There is no study that requires more careful thought, and, if beyond the simplest elements, none to which maturity of mind is more necessary. It is the most practical of all studies, and, other things being equal our powers increase as our skill in the use of language increases. A large number of the great controversies of the past originated in the use of one word to express different ideas, or in expressing the same idea by the use of different words. And today our legislators are busy making laws, claiming to show the will of the people, while lawyers and judges flourish and grow fat by showing us wherein they fail to do so.

Almost all mistakes in grammar come from a lack of ideas rather than from a lack of words. Our thoughts are vague and our language becomes uncertain. Clear thinking begets accurate speech, and if we have the one there seldom will be occasion to charge a lack of the other. How can we be taught to think?

We boast of our educational system, but why? Does it accomplish what it is intended to do? With their multiplicity of studies, are our boys more fully developed, mentally, than were our forefathers who were thoroughly drilled in the three R's only? Our boys know more things, but are they more self-reliant, more capable of meeting and overcoming difficulties than were those trained in the old way? In short, do we send out thinking men? If not, then our educational system is not a success, and a part, at least, of the immense sums of money appropriated to it might well be used for other purposes. The fact that we are constantly trying something new shows that we are not satisfied.

The value of a teacher depends upon his ability to develop the individual, not upon his skill in pouring in average doses of knowledge. All knowledge may be useful, but mental training is useful to every one that has it.

As thinkers, as students, as readers, we are superficial, and while it may be true that reading "maketh a full man," we must not forget that a very shallow vessel may be full.

Miss Shipman says reform rests with the individual. In a measure this is true, but we need leaders. To whom shall we look?

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A REPLY.

The editor of THE CHAUTAUQUAN sent me the manuscript of the article printed above, asking me to make comment or reply to the criticisms which it contains. This I am willing to do, not only to justify myself, but to furnish a "stimulus to the critical study of English among the readers of the magazine."

1. This criticism is not altogether clear. Probably my critic means that "so" should be used for "as." Two reasons make "as" the proper word: (1) The real distinction between the two words is that "so" is used to compare objects widely different, as, "This bungalow is not *so* high as that tower." "As" is used when the comparison indicates little difference. "This house is not *as* high as its neighbor." (2) There is already one "so" in the sentence. Euphony would make "as" preferable. Furthermore, if I chose to, I might prove an alibi on the basis of the context. The words are in the mouth of an Englishwoman.

2. Text-books of rhetoric teach us that one way to secure force is to place the word or phrase to be emphasized at the beginning of the sentence. I had to choose here between the ideas "a knowledge of correct English" and "in college." The former was the idea which I wished to make emphatic, although the position of "in preparatory schools," at the beginning of the next clause, might seem to demand the construction suggested. A writer that thinks generally has reasons.

3. I put "gradually" after the verb for emphasis. This criticism is hypercritical.

4. "By the natural method" is made more forceful by its position at the end of the sentence. My critic appears to think that every sentence should be periodic. I think not.

5. This criticism reminds me of the kindergarten child who said to his teacher, "What are you?" "A teacher," she replied. "Oh, I thought you were a lady." My critic has overlooked a real error in this sentence. I wrote "people," where I should have written "persons."

6. My opponent has not met me on my own ground. Throughout my article I have implied that "speaking good English" means avoidance of solecisms. My examples show

that. In one case only did I consider the matter of construction, and I merely mentioned pronunciation.

7. The point which I suppose my critic to be making here is that an author, and not his work, is illiterate. The third definition for "illiterate," in the *Standard Dictionary*, is "manifesting illiteracy; as, illiterate rudeness." The word may therefore be applied both to the writer and to his work. It is always well to be sure of what the authorities say before one attacks.

8. It is correct to use "either" with any number of things, if "or" is repeated before each of them.

9. In view of the fact that "time" has two meanings,—a point of time and a quantity of time,—this criticism appears to me to be hypercritical.

10. This calls to mind a letter which I have received from an anxious correspondent, wanting to know how a *mistake* can be *grammatical*. (Line 11 in my article.) "Grammatical," according to Webster, means "of or pertaining to grammar, of the nature of grammar; as, a grammatical rule." A grammatical mistake is therefore a mistake pertaining to grammar, just as an orthographical mistake is a mistake pertaining to spelling. The English language allows a certain latitude of expression. One may say, "a grammatical mistake" or "a mistake in grammar." In like manner, one may say "chemistry teacher" or "teacher of chemistry." Always to make use of the locution "garden for flowers" instead of "flower-garden" would be a trifle prim.

11. See No. 2. If my critic will review the chapter on "Force" in Hill's *Rhetoric*, he will understand what I mean.

12. This is wit. The point is well taken. I went on to say, however, that I wondered whether the teacher was ignorant, or only napping. If I were not writing seriously, I should reply in answer to my critic that ignorance would not be heard. Napping might be.

13. My critic is right.

14. The correction appears to me to be awkward. He should rather have corrected me for writing "seems," where "appears" is the proper word.

15. For the sake of force, words unnecessary to the sense are sometimes introduced. If I were teaching a class in rhetoric, I should say, at this juncture, "Take the chapter on 'Force' over again."

16. The criticism is correct because of my use of "only" before "napping." If

I had omitted that word, "if" would have been allowable. A truly discriminating critic would have observed an error which I corrected in the proof, and which the printer failed to alter. "I wondered if [whether] the teacher *were* ignorant" should read "*was* ignorant."

17. There are different kinds of society, fashionable, artistic, literary, etc. I meant society at large.


My critic says, "There were several more mistakes." If there are more, I should be glad to have them indicated. As I have said in another article,—"*The American Language*,"—when a writer criticizes English, his readers, if they are critical, notice his own English. I hope that I am large-minded enough to acknowledge defeat.

I have considered these items in detail because such thumb-rule criticisms must be met point by point, else the defendant lays himself open to the charge of inability to answer an argument because he does not take time to reply to it. Possibly I might point out a few mistakes that my critic has made, other than the repeated colloquial use of "claim." But I will content myself with replying according to the letter of his criticism, and not in its spirit.

In conclusion, I would remind my critic that criticism by undergraduates is chiefly valuable as a means of discipline to the undergraduates themselves. They outgrow the hypercritical atmosphere in which they are reared. In college and later, in the world, they learn by experience that after grammatical and rhetorical rules are mastered, the questions of taste and motive enter. In other words, the personality of the writer pushes through the substratum of cut-and-dried rules, chooses a form of expression from the many possibilities, and evolves an individual style. There is, thank heaven! no Normal School of English Expression. There is generally more than one way of saying a thing. What you should say depends on what you mean.

I would also warn my critic that this hypercritical method in the teaching of rhetoric tends to influence the teacher's attitude in the world. I have taught school myself, and I know whereof I speak. Unless a teacher is broad-minded enough to free himself from the traditional academic attitude of the school-room, his teaching will be inadequate, and the world will surely call his criticism prim. It is this hypercritical attitude that tends to make the name of teacher a stigma.

CAROLYN SHIPMAN.



THE AMERICAN STUDENT IN FRANCE.

BY JAMES A. HARRISON.

(Professor of Teutonic Languages, University of Virginia.)

In the spring of 1895 an American professor connected with the University of Chicago happened to be passing through Paris on his way home from Germany, where he had just taken his degree of doctor of philosophy at the University of Halle. Being interested in educational matters and having drunk deeply of both the American and the German systems at their fountain-heads, he turned with a natural curiosity to the examination of the French system whose splendid results he observed in the French capital. He found in full operation the iron-bound system of "old" France by which the French universities, originally autonomous and independent, had been consolidated by Napoleon I. into a great machine called the University of France, of which the Sorbonne at Paris and the faculties of Lyons, Bordeaux, Montpellier, and several other cities were sections, known as "academies."

Admission to this walled town of education was, for a foreigner, exceedingly difficult. First and foremost, the applicant had to have the *baccalauréat* or the *licence* degree of a French *lycée* (equivalent to the graduation certificate from a German gymnasium or an American university). When he had obtained the coveted admission to the Sorbonne as a student of any faculty, he immediately assumed the strait-jacket of a course of study largely prescribed. He was subjected to frequent compulsory examinations (unknown in Germany for the corresponding degree of doctor of philosophy), and was under the tyrannous surveillance of the state for at least four years. He graduated at the end of this minimum of time not on presentation of a thin pamphlet or modest dissertation evincing original research, but on the publication of an extended memoir or a goodly volume such as was handed in by the historian Taine when he was striving for the degree. The attainment of the degree, whether in literature, law, science or medicine, then entitled the holder to important privileges in the state: if a literary man he might be chosen *agrégé* or *professeur* in one of the metropolitan or provincial faculties; if a lawyer, after a nine years' course, he was entitled to be elected judge, if the

suffrages of his friends so decided; if a medical man, he could, if he chose, open a pharmacy or practice medicine on the strength of his diploma.

Foreigners, of course, were not excluded from these straight and admirable roads to state preferment; but few of them had the means or the inclination to spend from four to ten years in France for the purpose of acquiring a doctorate from the University of France, and few were the pilgrims who went there with this object.

American students having found this out and yet eager for continental culture and the advantages of residence at a foreign university, trooped to Germany in crowds from the days of Ticknor and Bancroft and Longfellow, swarming like bees about the towers and quadrangles of the "Georgia Augusta" or the "Albertina," old Heidelberg or smoky Leipzig. There they found boundless hospitality, infinite freedom in the choice of subjects, absence of state surveillance (in the French sense), and exemption from stated compulsory examinations. Hence began what the French are even now crying out against—the "Teutonization" of America. Since the Civil War especially, where tens have gone to study in France, hundreds if not thousands of Americans have enrolled themselves on the matriculation books of the German universities. This was not altogether due to the intellectual toleration and hospitality of Germany and to the freedom from vexatious restrictions enjoyed by the student there, but also to the enormous German population of this country, which is naturally sympathetic with the Fatherland.

Such was the condition of things educationally in France up to 1895. Our student population, our elect young men, the bloom and flower of our masculine youth poured into Germany. The fashionable, the frivolous, the modish, the voluptuary, the sybarite gravitated towards the Loire and the Seine without ever suspecting that Paris was not France or France Paris. It was a serried column of pleasure-seekers bent on clothes and bric-à-brac, the gourmand and the epicurean class least desirable of all as the true representatives of a great and free nation.

And thus we have presented to Europe the singular anomaly of being two nations diametrically opposed. To Germany we are a nation of serious students enthusiastically pursuing ideal aims of study, research, and culture; to France we are a nation of opera-goers, hotel-haunters, bric-à-brac hunters, millinery-mad, without real culture underlying our enormous wealth. France stood apart from us, as really inaccessible as Mont Blanc, while Paris absorbed our intense admiration, our intent gaze. We contented ourselves with idling over the brilliant shop-windows and salons of the capital, unsuspicious of the infinite riches of soul and spirit and opportunity that lay about us. After being profoundly influenced by French institutions in the last century, when Jefferson and Franklin were our exchanges for Rochambeau and Lafayette, we drifted utterly asunder from the rich life and atmosphere of Latin civilization. We renovated our attenuated blood not in the deep ebb and flow of cultural conditions as they exist in the most splendid and gifted of modern races, but hibernated, as it were, in the land of Goethe and Schiller just awakened from a thousand-years' sleep in the Teutoburger Forest. Happily this was the fault not of ourselves but of France. The inflexibility of the French educational administration was of a piece with France's inflexible logic. An imperious insistence on supervising its youth had dogged the footsteps of the students into and through the purlieus of *école, lycée*, and university. Every man must be watched from the cradle to the grave; every girl must be incarcerated in a convent and released from prison only when the magic sesame of marriage was pronounced.

Having studied the problem from the point of view of his American and German experiences, and viewing with amazement the marvelous wealth of France in every species of intellectual stimulus, left almost unheeded by the hurried traveler owing to the impassable barriers thrown up by French tradition, Professor Furber addressed in May, 1895, a respectful memorial to the Ministry of Public Instruction in Paris presenting these facts. He lucidly expounded the position of the young American savant seeking further culture in France; discreetly complimented the inexhaustible resources of the capital and country for the educational enthusiast; remonstrated with the authorities for closing them by artificial or traditional obstacles against foreigners, and contrasted French niggardliness with the plenteous generosity of Germany.

Here a tender point was touched: why should Germany, the hereditary foe, absorb all this young, this virile intelligence from over the sea, when France, by a little relaxation of her inelastic system, could admit a portion of it and benefit by its fresh, vivacious, and abounding vitality?

The memorial made a sensation, and in the *Journal des Débats* of June 7, 1895, it was answered by no less a person than the illustrious philologist Bréal, a member of the Institute and a professor at the Collège de France. Professor Furber's views were given a speedy and highly favorable consideration. Changes in the university system were, it seems, already impending, and the discussion hastened the downfall of the Chinese Wall. The heads of the educational department and the leaders of the press immediately took the matter in hand. A comité Franco-Américain with a definite plan of campaign was organized two weeks after Mr. Furber's idea had been laid before the public. It was presided over by M. Gréard, rector of the Academy of Paris, and was attended by many of the most distinguished educators of France, including MM. Bréal, Lavissee, Maspero, Paul Meyer, and Monod. The American ambassador, the Minister of Foreign Affairs, and the Minister of Public Instruction took a lively part in the movement. A coöperating committee was appointed composed of members of the French Academy and Institute, the Collège de France, the theological, medical and law faculties of the university, and of the presidents of eight American universities (Yale, Harvard, Columbia, Johns Hopkins, Michigan, Cornell, Columbian, Clark), besides the U. S. Commissioner of Education, the secretary of the Smithsonian Institution, and others—twenty-nine in all.

A few months of discussion resulted in the Act of July, 1896, which removed from the ministry of Public Instruction to the universities many of the problems connected with the higher education. There were fifteen large cities in France, each containing a section of the former University of France,—often an ancient and renowned section. These were Paris, Aix, Besançon, Bordeaux, Caen, Clermont, Dijon, Grenoble, Lille, Lyon, Montpellier, Nancy, Poitiers, Rennes, and Toulouse. By the "act of emancipation" of July these became legally distinct and independent universities empowered to award not state diplomas but scientific titles. They were self-governing bodies freed from state control and entitled to regulate their own budget and discipline.

Thus autonomy, once the glory of old pre-Napoleonic educational France, was restored, and a student now has his choice of fifteen institutions situated in a country celebrated for its varied and picturesque beauty, with conditions of climate far superior to those of Germany. The old state degrees, of course, remain unchanged for those that want them, but for the foreigner there is the welcome addition of the *doctorat d'université*, a purely educational degree of doctor of philosophy. It is based upon a minimum of two years' study, one of which may be passed elsewhere. Indeed, in the case of an exceptionally well-prepared applicant, only one year's residence, with moderate fees, is required. For this degree not even the preliminary *licence* or *baccalauréat* is now indispensable, and the examinations may be stood *en bloc*, as in the medical course.

Most of the universities have hastened to assert their independence and have created doctorates differing from each other only in minor details, and closely assimilated to those of the German universities.

France being now in this attitude of gracious hospitality towards the American student, what are the opportunities to be enjoyed by a well-prepared American who settles in France for a year or two in search of higher educational advantages?

The university courses begin the first week of November. To be ready for them the intending student is advised to start in June, just after our American commencements, to settle down in a comfortable *pension* or private family, and to insert an advertisement in the paper offering to exchange English for French lessons with a duly qualified person. Comfortable board and lodging, including service, can be obtained in Paris for from \$30 to \$40 a month. Cheaper rates prevail in the fourteen provincial cities; and the exchange of lessons greatly reduces expenses. Among the admirable agencies at hand in Paris for aiding the inexperienced traveler-student perhaps the most available is the well-known "Alliance Française," with headquarters 45, Rue de Grenelle. It is a national association for the propagation of the French language in the colonies and abroad. This is a busy and excellent summer school, consisting of two courses, open in July and August respectively, for the study of the language, literature, arts, institutions, and life of France. There is no distinction as to nationality, age or sex. No entrance certificate or diploma is required, and a fee of

about \$30 covers the whole expense. One may be examined or not as he pleases, and certificates are awarded. This institution, conducted by members of the French Academy and Institute, the Collège de France, and other institutions of the highest rank, enables the summer sojourner to hear some of the most distinguished men in France on their specialties; and the students are conducted through the museums of art and antiquities by specialists of distinction.

Three months of such preparation, to one already familiar with written French, will put the student in a condition to follow the lecturers at the Sorbonne, the Collège de France, or the École des Hautes Études with reasonable certainty, when the November semester begins.

Other cities besides Paris have established *cours de vacances*, among them Caen, Clermont, Grenoble, and Nancy.

Educational France is thus open in the most liberal manner to the following classes:

1. Intelligent travelers without settled plans of study but desirous of temporary matriculation for purposes of general education, language culture, and the like.
2. Specialists pursuing personal investigations among the innumerable scientific institutions of the metropolis and the provinces, without working for any degree.
3. Candidates working for the degree of doctor of philosophy in this or that university, who are regularly enrolled, attend elective courses, are examined at the end of one or two years and at the end of the course satisfy the examiners by a meritorious dissertation that they are properly qualified for the *doctorat universitaire*.
4. Students of music and art in the conservatories.

A large number of students have already enrolled themselves in the third class, and America will soon enjoy the spectacle of a multitude of her wide-awake young men subjected to the cultural influences of a race whose intellectual products have always been of the highest order, whose admirable prose style is the wonder and admiration of aesthetically trained men and women, and whose great achievements in art and science place it abreast, if not ahead of the great Teutonic race.

[Most interesting detailed information on this subject may be obtained from "The Universities of France: A Guide for American Students," published by the Franco-American Committee and sent out by the United States Commissioner of Education; and from the pamphlets of the Alliance Française, 45, Rue de Grenelle, Paris.]

VOICE IN SPEECH.*

BY ADA STERLING.

Has it ever occurred to anyone to compute the number of persons who talk to the public as a means of livelihood, for fame, for charity, or for the mere pleasure they gain in having an audience at their mercy for even a few moments at a time? If we glance but casually over our own country, we shall find that among our public speakers are the members of the congressional bodies at Washington and the legislative assemblies of the various states, lawyers pleading their cases, ministers preaching the Gospel, and men and women who are instructors in institutions of learning. Besides these, there are at the present time between five and six million women who are club members. Each is animated by a love of some special humanitarian, educational, evangelistic or political project that is likely to call her to the platform in its defense, and so precipitate her, willingly or unwillingly, into public speech. Perhaps one per cent of these public spirited persons may have given some thought to vocal preparation for the meeting of such an emergency. To a critical ear it would seem that not more than one-half of one per cent of the entire aggregation of men and women speakers has devoted any time whatsoever to the thought of vocal needs.

Visitors to the capitol, who stroll into the Senate chamber or House of Representatives, comment freely on the vocal peculiarities of many of our lawmakers. The tone-coloring of twang and drawl with which our self-made statesmen tinge the atmosphere has netted humorists many a dollar. Max O'Rell found much to amuse him in the American voice. And Mark Twain, Eugene Field, and Josh Billings, to say nothing of Bill Nye and later "funny men," have all "had a fling at it."

Our pulpit speakers, although almost invariably possessing advantages of education over the rank and file of our lawmakers, are nevertheless fully as conspicuous for their lack of vocal poise and finish of speech. This is one of the reasons why many of the prominent churches in large cities prefer the smooth elocution of English, Scotch, and Irish clergymen, and often choose their pastors from among them rather than from among their own countrymen. A better aver-

age of good speakers exists among lawyers, probably because each is on his guard against the satire and caustic ridicule of his professional associates. But, notwithstanding the attention given in our universities, colleges and higher schools to the purification of the American speech and the education of the common voice, the heaven has not yet entered appreciably into the mass of the people.

Within the present year two interesting and valuable papers have appeared in THE CHAUTAUQUAN, touching upon the grammatical and conversational shortcomings of educated Americans, and the absence in the average person of a keen perception of the fine shades of meaning that lie beneath the surface of words. Such criticisms must always prove of immediate good, but the first principles of pleasing speech lie behind grammar, behind conversation. They will be found in clean articulation, and in a keenly trained ear which, sensitive to every pleasant or unpleasant sound, constrains its possessor to imitate the former and avoid the latter.

My own observations persuade me that the chief evil in the American speech may be traced to a misuse and undervaluation of the voice itself. The speaking voice is so common a gift that many carelessly esteem it a natural phenomenon capable of caring for itself and requiring nothing at our hands but to be doled out, as occasion demands, in what we are pleased to call "words." We pay much attention to the acquiring of a large vocabulary, as if quantity and not quality and selection were the end sought. We would better acquaint ourselves with the true tone values as well as the shades of meaning of fewer words each day than to equip our minds and hamper our unskilled tongues with a multitude of words half comprehended and incompletely uttered. The indistinct or unfinished pronunciation of a word destroys its force and elegance, and at once classifies the person who utters it. Our common habit is to gulp words without permitting the tongue and palate to become acquainted with their flavor.

From the beginning of the child's education, and long before the tongue has been taught to utter words, the young mind is overfurnished with them. Richard Grant

*Practical Life Series No. 6.

White says: "There is no guide to good speech but daily association with the best speakers; and that, to be effective, should begin early in life." He might have added, in the nursery. The child who is fortunate enough to receive any instruction whatsoever in the articulation of new words, as they meet him one by one, is an enviable little mortal. The crowded schoolrooms into which he is ushered later offer no opportunity for the individual care of voices; moreover, the teachers are fully occupied with what are considered by our utilitarian boards of education as more important studies than that of voice production.

Properly speaking, rudimentary voice culture should precede the study of grammar, and later accompany it at every step. It should be begun with the first dividing of the letters of the alphabet into vowels and consonants. Too often, vocal training begun after adolescence is passed results in an affectedness of utterance that is scarcely less unpleasant than the crude speech. The average child is born with every essential muscle for the production of clear musical tones. Mr. Damrosch finds that there is scarcely one child out of a thousand that cannot be taught to sing pleasingly and to detect the different musical pitches. The very young child's ears are sharp and acquisitive, catching the modulations of happiness or unhappiness, approval or fault-finding, gentle persuasion or domination, to imitate all of which the young vocal organs are secretly striving. In the child having a strong body and equal will, a home of contention only can produce a harsh, disputatious or defiant habit of voice. The voice of a weaker child born into the same surroundings will be timid, apologetic, whining. A cold, loveless home will chill the warmth of the young voice; a mournful atmosphere incite to habitual plaintiveness if not to petulance. The prim conventionality of some eminently respectable homes (who does not know just where to put the finger on them?) sees vulgarity in a child's merry laugh and suppresses it. The bad vocal consequences of such restriction are soon discernible. The fresh laughter in which all the muscles of body and throat and head have been freely taking part being suddenly checked, there is a furtive effort on the part of the child to thereafter conceal the mirth that springs up so spontaneously in the young. If fear of punishment be present, this warring between the desire to laugh and the constant necessity for choking the laugh back will eventually

cause that which was naturally a rippling, musical sound to degenerate into a cackle. Such ignorant restriction of a natural vocal expression often entails a life-long sensitiveness and attendant distress. Any voice habitually repressed grows husky and harsh through disuse, and if its original beauty is ever recovered it is only after many struggles and tedious study.

Some happy conclusions as to the blamelessness of the much-abused American climate may be drawn from the fact that this country has produced such well-equipped speakers as the late Phillips Brooks, Charlotte Cushman, Roscoe Conkling, Frances E. Willard, etc. Enough living witnesses may be called to prove that the "twang," the unpleasant nasal tone, so generally complained of, is in fact the result of the habit of haste rather than of climatic disadvantages.

As nearly as can be defined, the voice is a volatile expression of the body and mind, and draws thence its character. Where the physical condition is equal to the strength of the mind with which it is coupled, the voice will be firm, round, and full. If inequalities exist, such as a weakly body, and strong, active mind, the voice will always betray the mental consciousness of the bodily limitations against which it struggles. The vocal product of such a union of mental strength and bodily weakness will be marred by straining after force, a repellent gruffness, or any of the several vocal expressions of the moods of a dissatisfied mind. Dramatists, poets and novelists recognize voice to be an expression of body and mind. With a few words they graphically reveal their creations to us. One says of his favorite heroine, "Her voice was silvery and sweet," and of his hero, "His voice was deep and manly;" and so he gives us in a twinkling two characters we like. But let us suppose he has described them as follows: "Her voice was hard and shrill;" or "He spoke in coarse and strident tones." What pen might be gifted enough to convince the reader of latent grace or goodness in either?

Plutarch, the historian, tells us that greater than her beauty "Cleopatra's voice was delightfully melodious and had as many modulations as an instrument of many strings." He also says that men and women of her period spared not the most prodigious efforts and study in order to bring the speaking voice into its most perfect form. Then are cited the experiences of Cicero, who traveled from one seat of learning to another seeking to find teachers who would

bring his harsh and unmanageable voice into the soft elegance which alone delighted his critical ear. The story of his persistent efforts to become vocally free is worthy the attention of every intending student, especially of those whose aim is to be heard in public speech or pleading. The future orator was weak-bodied, thin, dyspeptic. He was obliged to be most abstemious in all matters pertaining to the table. His voice was capable of varied inflections, but was harsh and repellent. His impetuous spirit caused his words to rush from his lips in an almost unintelligible torrent which exhausted and mastered him. In his vehemence his voice rose so high and the strain of using it was so obvious to his hearers that it created in their minds a fear lest he might burst a blood vessel. Yet so great was his ambition to overcome these disabilities that he left nothing untried that had in it any suggestion of help. He pursued a system of physical exercises until his body grew strong; he studied enunciation with the Athenian masters until his unruly breath and tongue and lips were under his control. He practiced rational gesticulation until grace of action was acquired. The voice, at last expressing the elasticity and bodily health now attained, grew rich, sonorous and so full of sweetness that it was a source of marvel to all who heard it.

With an occasional exception, men and women having aspirations for public life are unwilling to postpone their appearance until vocal preparation has been made. They will oppose a caution by instancing the accidental force that accompanies this or that person's speech, who *they know* has had no preparatory training. They pit what they are pleased to call "Nature" against "Artificiality," and beseech the ear of the public for indulgence even while they flippantly bid it "take them as it finds them." There is a story of a self-confident youth who once held the respect due the public in similar disdain. He went boldly before them, but overcome by the presence of his auditors, he lost all self-control, and stammered and stuttered until they made him a laughing-stock. For days he wandered in the unfrequented streets of the city in which he lived, ashamed to meet his fellows. In the course of time, however, his vanity persuading him that the fault of his first failure lay in the stupidity of his hearers, he again secured an audience. But again his awkward speech and broken periods, caused by insufficient breath control, brought him the jeers and insults of the peo-

ple. They turned their backs upon him. The spectacle of a public speaker gasping for breath between his phrases was so comical that they smothered their laughter in their robes, and amid coarse jokes laughed him down. It was not until he had met with several public indignities that he consented to look within himself for the secret of his failures. Then, at last, he deliberated upon how to cure his faults. He built a subterranean study, in which he locked himself for months at a time while practicing enunciation and voice control. He "adjusted all his gestures" and motions before a mirror, and devised heroic treatment by which to sustain his breath during the delivery of long phrases. When at last he emerged again into the public view, Demosthenes, the former awkward one, was soon hailed as the greatest orator of his day. Looking back over his early chagrins and failures, he declared to his friends and followers that the coming prepared to the rostrum was not merely a necessity for success but a decent "mark of respect for the people."

Thus far we have been regarding the voice as a public ornament rather than as a social grace, its cultivation as something compelling public commendation or applause rather than as a means to personal and social delight. There are few more satisfactory attributes to be asked for in a friend than that he or she shall possess a musical, free, sympathetic voice—and this because it expresses the nature of the friend. Yet there are many fine natures and true that, upon one's first encountering them, create a "bad impression" because of some unusual and obviously defective vocal characteristic.

The study of the voice in speech, even more than in song, carries with it a close consciousness of the Infinite. The swiftly-formed, swiftly-passing word that we speak; the mysterious manner in which we will it into its momentary existence; the importance of its message, however awkwardly we deliver it, all emphasize the spirituality of that which we define as voice, and the wonder of speech itself. Sir John Lubbock says: "It is remarkable that more pains are not taken with the voice in conversation, for from the very beginning of human existence it has been a source of melody." Henry Irving, in an address before the students of Harvard University, laid stress upon the inexhaustible significance of the human voice. Both the elder Booth and Edwin Booth did much to direct the attention of Americans to the need of parting with the careless, hurried speech

that has marked them for two centuries. Foreign travel and acquaintance with other languages than our own are forces that slowly make toward an ultimately improved common speech. But these all may not share; hence the cure for poor vocalism must be found at home and in ourselves.

The real inferiority of the American voice lies in a kind of lazy enunciation, the continued employment of flat localisms of speech which debase it, the omissions of final *t*'s and *d*'s, and the permitted corruptions of the vowel sounds that change the word "very" to *vurry*, "America" to *Amurrika*, etc. With an independence that would be as laudable in another cause we cling manfully to the flat, unmusical *a* sounds and to the right to say *ain't*, with all its ugly nasal tones, whenever we wish to do so. Such *grotesqueries* of speech and tone, together with what we term "a peculiar voice," interpose themselves with prejudicial effect between a speaker and his hearer, and inevitably deprive his utterances of charm and force. They are the direct testimony of an uneducated ear and lack of early training in articulation rather than of actual preference for unmusical sounds. No one willingly offends his own sense of euphony by mispronouncing words or letters when once the necessary correct tones have been apprehended by him. Curiously enough, we have occasional instances of absolute lack of such apprehension on the part of some who by profession are public speakers, and therefore public examples. I have heard a world-renowned American actress whose ears so poorly perform their functions that she continues, unconscious of her tongue's shortcomings, to read *Rosalind's* line, "I must comfort the weaker vessel," as "I mus' com' for the weaker vessel."

For those who have arrived at manhood and womanhood with vocal and linguistic faults clinging to them there is but one way of ridding themselves of their defects, and that, to begin at the beginning of the study of tone production and word forming. The constant aid of a critical teacher is of the utmost importance in the early stages of voice culture, especially where the ear must be educated as well as the vocal organs; but, by no means should an instructor be chosen who confuses the mind with long lectures upon the minute nerves and muscles that combine their forces in the making of voice. The most rational vocal teachers no longer seek to bring their pupils into too intimate an acquaintance with these secret agents.

They have learned that a clear voice is not dependent upon a knowledge of the subtle muscular connections between the soft palate and the cranium. They realize the folly of expending effort upon an analysis of the function of the cricoid or thyroid cartilages. The hyoid bone is left, as it should be, to the medical students and their instructors. The real effect of vocal training that includes such medical lore is to quicken and stimulate the hitherto quiet and automatic little muscles of the throat until they become constricted, inflamed and ultimately delicate, if not actually diseased.

For the adult student the first step in vocal culture must be to establish the body in good health. "Everything that develops suppleness, elasticity and grace," said Henry Irving, said the old Greek teachers, and still say the instructors at Columbia, Harvard, Princeton, Yale, Barnard, Wellesley, Bryn Mawr and other prominent schools, "should be continuously cultivated." The gymnasium should be frequented wherever possible, outdoor games be played by young and old, brisk walks should be taken and calisthenics be practised at home. A month of such daily preparation of the body and of simple breathing exercises is not too long a time to devote to a silent toning up of the body for its later vocal work.

Set facial muscles are the greatest obstacles to success with adult students. The chin has grown rigid, in all probability, and the lines of the mouth set. To restore flexibility to these important parts many complex exercises have been devised, all of which, simply translated, mean the free exercise of the facial muscles. Avoid habitual gravity. It is not always an expression of dignity. Let the emotions speak through the countenance as God meant them to do. Laugh heartily and observe the exhilaration that follows. If your social and business environments are uncompromisingly serious seek as an antidote child friends somewhere, somehow. Follow their moods and enter into them. You will thus get back to the natural expressions of your own. There is nothing better than to undertake to amuse children by making nonsensical grimaces. This is as efficacious in giving suppleness to the muscles of the face as massage treatment could be, and ends in no merely simulated good humor.

The correct position of the body for vocal practice is secured by standing squarely on both feet with heels together. The head and shoulders should be held erect but by no

means rigid. Let the arms hang loosely at sides. Now, gently and without straining, direct the shoulder blades downward and the hips upward to meet them. The directing thought will vitalize the entire back. Some persons take the true position more readily by being directed to throw the chest forward and the hips backward. While holding the position just taken, breathe deeply, and observe how the muscular portions of the back just below the shoulders, the sides of the waist and hips all yield outward to accommodate the indrawn breath. Where the dorsal muscles have sagged through inaction or wrong breathing, the new effort will tire at first, but a few days of persistent practice will benefit the health of the experimenter and increase his endurance. This position should be kept in mind when walking or standing, whether the purpose be for vocal improvement or simply to invigorate the body.

When the muscles of the back have once become consciously active, they may be strengthened by adopting a very simple exercise that may be practiced at home. The student, lying prone on the floor, rises slowly on hands and toes, lifting the body as high as possible, swinging it like a bridge, and slowly lowering it to the floor again. This should be repeated several times each day. Observe the muscles directly engaged in this exercise. It will be found that the forearm and upper arm, chest, shoulders, hips and abdominal muscles are all excited with a new vitality, and that the voice is shortly infused with the same quality, which has been gained through the general quickening that is plainly felt in the body.

Good breathing depends principally upon a healthy dorsal region, which means also an active hip movement, a free, swinging leg, and the ability to stand firmly on both feet. "Lack of backbone" in its almost literal sense is accountable in large part for poor voices and carelessly given speech. The cultivation of the will power that will force the body into a correct position in walking or standing is necessary in order to compel a proper activity in the entire region along the backbone. Where this portion of the body is permitted to continue inert it will be impossible to charge the breath and vocal cords with energy sufficient to cleanly, sharply utter a bright or full tone. Correctly speaking, there is no such thing as chest, diaphragmatic or abdominal breathing. One can, of course, by force of will, direct any of these regions into special consciousness

during the act of breathing, just as one can wiggle a toe or bend a finger; but no part of the human body is independently affected by the act of breathing. The voice student who has been confused by the above terms should abandon them at once and turn his efforts to the development of the entire body, which will increase the capacity and strength for sustaining a deep, full breath.

Ardent physicians who make a specialty of throat treatment tell us that the live vocal cords are things of exquisite construction. These are the ligaments or strings upon which the breath plays in producing tone. They lie in the voice box or larynx, which may be felt by closing the fingers about the front of the throat and gently exploring the region. The projecting horn or "Adam's apple" is often prominently visible in a man's throat, although never to be seen in a woman's. The larynx is movable, rising and falling in the act of swallowing, and capable of being pressed from side to side with the fingers. It is composed of an outer sheath of cartilage in which the ligaments or cords lie flaccid during quiet breathing. Their instant springing into tenseness at the command of the mind, their quick opening and closing at the touch of the breath is as full of magic and mystery as anything in the stories of the Arabian Nights.

Above the larynx lie infinitesimal muscles with which we have no immediate concern. Many of these seem to be placed in the throat for the express purpose of snaring an occasional green pea or kernel of corn and thereby spreading alarm at the formal dinner table. The pharynx, nasal passages, and dome-like hard palate are next encountered, and these are the reinforcing chambers of the voice. Sonorousness is developed in the pharynx, the walls of which may be seen in the extreme back of the mouth. The person who hitherto has devoted no thought to tone production will be surprised after a little experiment at the amount of plainly detected distention the pharynx is capable of undergoing.

One of the best exercises for arousing consciousness in this resonance chamber consists in preparing for and pronouncing the letter *b*, in the pronunciation of which the lips, tongue and teeth are all engaged. The letter should be thought of first without vocalizing it. While holding the sound of the letter in mind ready for utterance it will be observed that the lips have closed automatically, and are tensely joined at the outer edges; that the teeth have parted, and that the tip

of the tongue is braced against the lower part of the front teeth; that the back of the tongue is arched, and that the preparatory efforts for the formation of the strong, explosive consonant *b* are consciously distending the resonance chamber or pharynx. This silent analysis and exercise of preparing for uttering the chosen sound (to which later may be added the letters *p* and *m*) is the best that can be devised for the mental control of the voice muscles and should be tested and employed daily by the student of the speaking voice who desires to increase the volume and enrich the quality of the voice. In forming the letters *b* and *p* it will be observed that the tension of the lips is relaxed at once when sound is uttered, while in the formation of the letter *m* the closing of the lips completes the letter except as it hums through the teeth and nasal cavities. Professor March sums up the value of exercises upon consonants as being inexhaustible in their variety. Primally, he states, "each consonant stands for two sounds; the closing of the organs *ap*, and the opening of the organs *pa*." By adding the vowel sounds to the consonants above selected, a wide variety of exercises for the lips, tongue, and pharynx may be discovered immediately.

An analysis of the tone value of each separate letter of the English alphabet is one of the first steps toward that polish of speech which is the aim of all who would speak English well. If, added to this, there be an acquaintance with the vowel sounds of the French and German alphabet, the student will be provided with some ninety-six vowel changes and at the same time with the most complete set of exercises that could be obtained. Dr. Guilman has made a book (in French) containing a list of these sounds which, once the ear is trained to detect the shades of difference, will be most easy to articulate. The first step, however, should be always to form the letter mentally.

When sound is added to the silently formed letters, either vowels or consonants, it always should be given with the sharp, quick, precise glottic stroke. *Attack* is the best descriptive term to apply to the first vocal effort. The uttering of the tone should be like the quick meeting of steel. Only by this keen glottic action may a clear *ring* be infused into the voice. Voice that creeps into existence is either naturally weak, inert, and lacking in brightness and warmth (the expression of vitality) or made so by wrong training. Only the consciously

strong vocally are capable of uttering the very soft tones musically, because strength presupposes power over weakness, although weakness may have no power over strength.

Every voice-producing agent except the vocal cords and breath is concerned with the silent and mental formation of the vowels and consonants. As soon as these are called into service the question of pitch must be met and decided. In ordinary conversation, quite as often as in public speaking, many persons make the error of talking upon a higher or lower key than is common to them. Sometimes this is an involuntary expression of nervous strain, but as often it arises from a desire to do something out of the ordinary to meet the seeming needs of some unusual occasion. This is a fatal error. Straining after an unnatural pitch robs the tone of buoyancy, and even the most fastidiously chosen or forceful language becomes mean and puerile when sent through such vehicles of sound. The goal will be reached sooner, the message speed more quickly to its destination, if the normal pitch be held and the voice be propelled by the strong back muscles and emitted by means of the clean glottic stroke.

The normal pitch is that upon which one speaks naturally when entirely free from excitement or constraint. In the average voice it will be found to lie between middle *C* natural, on the pianoforte, and *A* flat above. About six tones are employed in ordinary conversation, although special emergencies of pleasure or pain, anger or joy, may swell this number to twelve. An expression of sudden joy will often carry even a low-pitched voice up to *E* flat in the fourth musical space; while one of grief, denunciation or sympathy may be pitched upon *A* below the staff. The vowels and consonants should be practiced on every available tone of the voice and the latter be exercised daily throughout its range. The student should always precede the thought of vocalizing by a determination to perfectly utter and complete every letter or word he speaks, and keep constantly before him the necessity for the correct physical preparation for speech. The gymnasium should be utilized wherever available, and golf played when practicable; but the brisk walk with head erect and hips vitalized is possible for every one. Health should be regarded as the foundation of a fresh, clear voice, and the latter in its true light as an audible expression of the whole body and character,

A DAY WITH THE NEW EDUCATION.

BY LAURA L. RUNYON.

"My dear," said my husband one morning—in the tone of voice he reserves for notifying me that a contagious disease has broken out in the neighborhood, or that he has discovered signs of total depravity in one of the children—"I think we are making a mistake in sending the children to the public school."

I had used those identical words to him on several successive mornings, after I had stayed awake for hours trying to decide whether to let the children go on getting only a fiftieth part of the attention of a teacher in the public schools, or to hire a university student to tutor them in his odd moments, at \$1.50 an hour. But I never like to irritate my husband early in the morning, so I restrained the "Just what I told you," and said calmly:

"What have you to suggest?"

"I hear that all the professors at the university are sending their children to the Dewey school."

I had heard of the Kosminski and the Ray schools in South Park, Chicago, where we had recently moved, and so asked if this were a new one, named after the admiral.

"Oh dear, no!" said my husband. "Mead says it's one of the greatest movements of the century. It's a primary school run by a university, with Dr. Dewey, the psychologist, to direct it. Its real name is 'The University Elementary School,' but every one calls it the Dewey school, because Dr. Dewey is working out some psychological principles of education."

Now I recollected that one of my neighbors, to whom I had expressed my dissatis-

faction with public schools, had sent me some books concerning a new plan of education. I got them and found them to be, "My Pedagogical Creed," and "The School and Society," both by Prof. John Dewey, head of the Department of Psychology and Pedagogy in the University of Chicago. I wondered if the new school were a "finishing" school, and if Dr. Dewey had discovered a way to abbreviate the amount of knowledge

a child must have to be respectable, so that it could be learned in the elementary grade. I determined to visit the school.

I have always found it best to do things while they are in my mind; so I started immediately after breakfast and arrived at the school before work had begun.

None of the children seemed to have any books as they came up. I didn't see even a geography or a reader among the older children. One little girl had a live alligator in a box; a small boy was carrying a large Indian blanket in from a carriage; one child had a basket of fruit, and another a package which I heard him tell the teacher contained "sandwiches." As he gave them into her charge, a smaller boy, who had been following him, asked pleadingly, "Aren't you going to invite me, George?"

I concluded that this must be an off day with the school; but thought that I might as well stay and see them start,—they seemed to be having such a good time.

At nine o'clock a bell rang, and the children went to various rooms, where I saw some one was marking their attendance. I was surprised to find that there were not more than ten children with any one teacher;



and that instead of the absolute silence I had considered the proper beginning of school, the children merely took their places in what seemed to be a recognized order, and continued their conversation. Then the "leader" was given a program for the day.

I concluded that not all were going to the picnic and that I would stay and see what I



could. I followed the children to the gymnasium, where seats were arranged for the morning exercises, which consisted chiefly of singing. One or two groups of children were asked to sing their "Group Song." Upon inquiry I was told that the charming little melody and the words of the songs I heard were composed by the children who sang them. All the "leaders" as they took their groups to various rooms after the singing seemed to have programs for the day; and I concluded that the picnic had been postponed, and felt sorry for the children with the sandwiches and fruit.

Upstairs I found a group of children about ten years old engaged in setting up electric bells. I recognized one of the children as a boy from our neighborhood, and wondered if I could get him to fix our bell, since we had had a sign "Please knock; bell don't ring" on the door for two days while waiting for the repair man.

A group of younger children had a sheepskin from which they were taking the wool. They spread the wool out thin with their hands and let the dirt fall out, then pulled the fibers straight and wound them on a stick which they called their "distaff." One little girl who had her distaff full was spin-

ning the wool into yarn with the help of a spindle she said she "made in the shop." Around the room were primitive looms being "warped" by the children, and I was shown designs of their own which were to be woven into small blankets. In another room I found one of the large old-fashioned looms of which I had heard, but had never seen before. Two of the older boys were at work "setting it up," as they called it.

Everywhere the children were busy, but the morning was half gone and I had heard nothing that reminded me of a school except a class talking Latin as I passed. I had heard a class discussing whether John Smith or George Washington were the greater man, and another group, with a relief map, trying to decide where it would be best to erect forts to protect the English colonies from the French aggressions from the north and west. But I always know at home when the children get on those subjects that they are *not* studying their lessons. I wondered why the teacher did not tell them, if she thought it worth while, and then have them bound states and name the capitals and principal cities. In all the classes the children talked — sometimes two at once; but with a free-



dom of expression and an ability to stick to the point which surprised me.

I met one of the teachers in the hall and besought her to tell me about the school: whether they had days, or hours, when they really used books; whether Dr. Dewey believed children ought to learn how to read, write and cipher, or whether the new education was a preparation for Tolstoy's socialism. She said that Dr. Dewey believed the

time spent in an elementary school on reading, writing and arithmetic could be more profitably spent; that an average child could learn these in doing other things.

She directed me to a class in primitive life where the children had spent some weeks in working out, with the aid of the teacher, what the earliest people must have done when they had no clothing, or food, or shelter, or means of defense. She told me how they had thought of a spear by fastening a stick between the split ends of a club; how they had made bowls out of clay, and discussed caves as the first homes, and skins as the first clothing. How they had moulded in clay their ideas of man and animals in those days, and had become so interested that they had begged to write a report of their work for the school paper. This report had been dictated to the teacher, as none of the class could write. It was then typewritten and all read what the whole group had agreed should be their record of work.

As I passed the room where the little girl with the alligator was, I observed the whole class absorbed in reading a similar report of their work, while the alligator in its box was unnoticed. When a child did not know a word, he was quite as likely to ask one of the other children to help him as to appeal to the teacher.

I had seen "gymnasium" on the program and concluded I would visit that and perhaps find the physical training my little folks needed. But I did not get so far, for as I passed through the dining-room the boy I had seen with the sandwiches and the girl with the fruit were setting the table. Each had a high white apron on and said they were the "waiters," and that this was their "day for the group luncheon;" that the rest of the group were cooking in the kitchen.

I found my way to the kitchen, which I had previously mistaken for the laboratory, with its rows of gas fixtures and asbestos mats. I learned that earlier in the morning the group had had a cooking lesson in which they experimented with the food given them. Each child had cooked one-third of a cup of flaked wheat in two-thirds of a cup of water. Each had calculated how much water he would need if he cooked half a cup, and then one child was told to find out how much he would need for the whole group and to cook it, while other tasks were assigned to the rest. Some were cooking a food which they had missed by absence, or which they had failed to cook properly. One child was making cocoa for all; another was making out

a tabular statement showing the proportion of water needed for each of the various preparations of wheat, oats and corn they had studied.

I thought how Fred worried over his fractions, and here were children two years younger working out the number of cupfuls



of water and cereal that would be needed for a family of three, five or eight, on the basis of the number for which one-third of a cupful would be sufficient.

The teacher told me that after they had used various weights and measures until they were familiar with them, they arranged them in tables for convenient reference; that after they had added by threes, fives, sevens, etc., they arranged these in the multiplication tables.

As I went back through the dining-room to the reception-room where one of the teachers had promised to answer some of my questions, the children sat down to the luncheon they had prepared. The sandwiches and fruit appeared, and the small boy who had begged an invitation was there, as a guest. A teacher had also been invited, and served the cereal brought her by the waiters.

From time to time during the morning, a line from Dr. Dewey's book had come into my mind: "Education is a process of living; not a preparation for future living."

The teacher who had consented to enlighten me said that Dr. Dewey had no thought of training cooks or factory hands, but that he believed there was an educational value in handling the raw materials from which our food, clothing and comforts are derived, and a mental training in reinventing each stage of the process of these industries. Then she told me how one group of children had begun by twisting the wool in their hands

to spin it into thread, as the earliest primitive people must have done; how the stick on which they had wound the hand-twisted wool dropped to the ground, twirling about and twisting the end of the thread held in the hand; and how this idea had been developed into the top-shaped spindle I had seen. They had then invented hand-cards for getting the fibers straight, then the idea of the spinning-wheel and the reel. They had also worked out the loom from the simple form of two sticks between which the warp was stretched to the more complex machinery. This had been done by the teacher putting in the simplest way exactly the difficulty to be overcome; and then the children worked out the way to overcome it.

The teacher further pointed out to me that in cooking their luncheons they not only learned to use fractions and weights and measures, as I had seen, but incidentally learned a great deal about chemistry. They estimated in percentage the amount of water and starch in a potato; they tried the effect of the juice of the tomato and of vinegar on milk, and decided that the curdling was due to an acid, and then found that soda would neutralize the acid and that it could be used to prevent curdling in their tomato bisque soup.

"But all this has been found out by past generations," I said. "Why not give the children the results; why require them to repeat the process?"

"Because the process is the valuable part." All universities now have laboratories in order that the students may perform their own experiments, rather than watch the professor do them; we merely carry out the same idea in the elementary period. The children have to read and write and manipulate figures and construct in order to do other things in which they are interested; and because what they desire to accomplish appeals to them as of real value, they are willing to do the less interesting work connected with it. Or take any one of our textile industries: the child has always thought of cloth as a thing by itself, with no history back of it beyond the store from which it was purchased. Under the guidance of the teacher he sees it reduced to its first elements, then reconstructed by himself, and cloth has become a new thing to him, bringing to his mind the lives of many peoples and many occupations. Moreover, he has learned a method of investigation which he can apply to any subject."

I was convinced, and entered my children; but asked, just as a matter of curiosity, "Isn't it very expensive to have a teacher for so few children?"

"Yes, but the university and some friends of the school who are interested in seeing the experiment carried through until the children enter college are helping us. Of course we hope some day to have an endowment," she said with a smile.

RUSKIN, THE REFORMER.

Down shot his godlike glance upon our sin-cursed earth,—
On man, God's image, bowed with want and shame,
He found, alas! in plenty's stead, abnormal dearth
Of all that makes life worth the serious aim.

He saw in ways of men God's order neutralized,
Confusion mocking poet's dream of law,
Love scorned, the power of wealth misused, unduly prized,—
One man before another bent in awe.

Christ-like, from temple of the Lord, by men profaned,
He sternly drove the money-changers out,
His burning words of truth proclaimed him God-ordained
To preach a living faith o'ermastering doubt.

—Johnson Brigham.

THE EXPANSION OF THE AMERICAN PEOPLE

By Edwin Erle Sparks

[Chapters I.-IV. appeared in the October issue. They treated first of expansion as a necessary law of human progress; the dispersion of mankind from the place of origin; the birth of nations; and the governing principles in mankind, as applied to our history, and disclosed in the expansion of the American people in all aspects. Chapter II. described the preparations of Europe in the fifteenth century for expansion — the overflow to the Western Hemisphere. Chapter III. described Spain's part in the western expansion, and the early partition of the western world by Spain, France, England and Portugal; the English speaking colonies proving the fittest to survive. Chapter IV. described the alien races in the English colonies and suggested the evolution of a new type of people from them.]

Summary of Preceding Chapters.

[Chapters V.-VIII. appeared in November. Two chapters described colonial life in the English colonies. Chapter VII. set forth the elements in and the results of the French-English struggle for the Mississippi Valley. Chapter VIII. described the national boundaries after the revolution and the influence of a "public domain."]

[Chapters IX.-XII. appeared in December. The beginnings of Kentucky and Tennessee, pathfinding across the Allegheny barrier, and the civilization of embryonic states were described in Chapters IX.-X. Chapter XI. covered the organization and influence of the system of "public lands." Chapter XII. dealt in detail with the peopling of the Northwest Territory.]

[Chapters XIII.-XVI. appeared in January. Journeying to the Northwest Territory, the process of state making, and typical pioneer life in the Ohio valley, formed the subject of two chapters. Chapter XV. gave a review of the evidences of the higher life among the American people. Chapter XVI. presented the story of the establishment of the national seat of government at Washington.]

[Chapters XVII.-XX. appeared in February. The difficulties with Spain about the southern boundary and the navigation of the Mississippi, the transfer of New Orleans to France, and the ensuing acquisition of both Louisiana and the Floridas occupied three chapters. The assimilation of the foreign element introduced by these expansions of territory was described in Chapter XX.]

CHAPTER XXI.

THE EVOLUTION OF THE AMERICAN FRONTIER.

It is now possible to study not only the growth but the influence of the frontier in America since it has passed forever. The higher civilization holds from ocean to ocean.

One of the foremost students of this picturesque feature of the past has summed up the influence it exerted on the growth of the federal union:

- Its composite nationality has evolved a new type—the American.
- Its agricultural resources have made us industrially independent of Europe.
- It has brought a more liberal construction of the powers given to the general government by the constitution.
- The practice of erecting new states from the land occupied by it has placed a new value on representative government.
- It has fostered a nationalizing tendency in political parties.
- It has contributed largely to the growth of democracy.
- It has inspired continued missionary effort.
- It has produced a virile intellectual development in its compelling environment.

No factor contributed more to develop the nascent influences of the frontier than that of transportation.

If the American bison or buffalo ever roamed east of the Allegheny mountains, his path or "trace" formed the basis of many Indian trails, as it did west of the mountains. But the Indian was frequently obliged to locate new paths across portages and about obstructions to water routes. Tanned deerskin afforded clothing well adapted to contact with

Required Reading for the Chautauqua Literary and Scientific Circle.

Influence of the frontier.

Making the Indian trail.

¹ Professor Turner, of the University of Wisconsin, in the Report of the American Historical Association for 1893.

EVOLUTION OF THE
WESTERN HOME.The squatter
follows the trader.

the bushes, although modern footwear would have been more suited to the making of a trail when it passed over stony ground.

Following the trail of the Indian came the French *coureur de bois* or the English trader seeking a traffic which refused to come to an established market. The trader was a transitory creature, and in nowise disturbed the primitive condition of the wilderness. But soon there came along the trail the hardy frontiersman, with his ax and his rifle. At the head of navigation on some stream, perhaps where had stood an Indian wigwam, he built his log cabin, the nucleus of a later city. The woods which had known no harsher sound than the whistle of the arrow now reëchoed with the report of the rifle and the stroke of the ax. Upon the back of his horse the squatter had brought his few household effects, while his family followed on foot.² Or perhaps the family cow may have become for the nonce a beast of burden in addition to her duty as a food-producing animal. The squatter clears a little "truck patch", but depends most upon hunting and fishing.

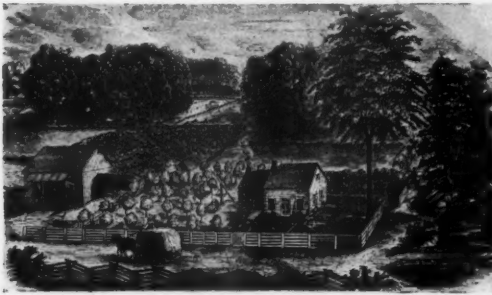
The pioneer farmer.

Soon the trail is widened by the ax of the next comer, the small farmer, with his wagon and few farming utensils. He has some knowledge of agriculture, a frugal and prudent spirit, and a title to the land. Perhaps he evicts the squatter,³ enlarges his "truck patch" to a field, puts a floor in his cabin and glass in the windows. For the accommoda-



² Among pioneer traditions it is not unusual to hear of a woman walking from the seaboard to the middle west carrying a child in her arms.

³ See note 3 on opposite page.

EVOLUTION OF THE
WESTERN HOME.

tion of travelers, this permanent resident places a rope ferry across the river and adds lodging rooms to his cabin. Thereafter he is joined by a blacksmith and wagon repairer, a store-keeper, and a professional inn-keeper. A village springs up at the ferry. To the adjacent "falls" in the river a crude water-wheel is harnessed or a series of rapids is dammed up to give the necessary water-power. Flour and lumber need be imported no longer. Instead, a small export trade in those commodities springs up.

As civilization spreads, local self-government is organized under the guidance of the United States, and the countryside is erected into a county, with a "county seat" in the center of population. In order to reach this seat of local government, roads must be constructed by grading to allow sufficient drainage; bridges and culverts must span the water courses; and the trees must be removed from each side to permit the sunshine to dry up the surface water. Guide-boards are needed at intersections of roads for the guidance of travelers in the sparsely settled country. For these expenditures, public money becomes available through local taxation. Where money is scarce, equivalent labor on the highway is allowed to be substituted.

Construction of
public highways.



² The pioneer often voluntarily vacated his temporary home when the first wave of real settlers appeared. He complained if neighbors came within ten miles of him that he was being crowded, and "broke for the high timber" (uncleared land) or "cleared out for the New Purchase," as he termed it. Observers at the time claimed to have found men under fifty who had settled on fresh ground westwardly five and six times.

MODEL OF PHILADELPHIA & PITTSBURGH WAGON.

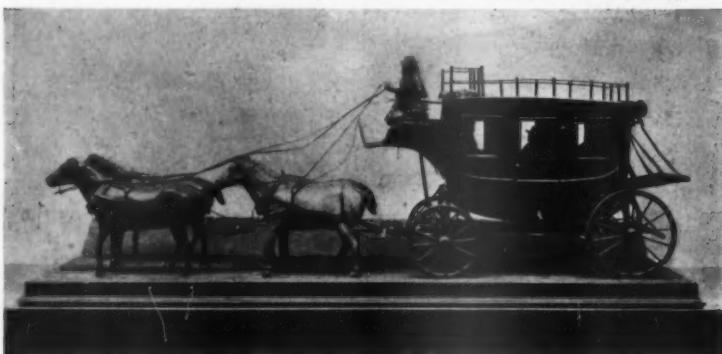


The highway becomes a turnpike.

With increased crops to market, come increased resources and an increased demand for better roads. The public highway is raised to a higher level and macadamized by covering it with gravel or some hard material. It is now a turnpike, commonly called a "pike." Where public money is insufficient to build turnpikes, local companies with private capital are authorized by law to construct them and to charge a uniform fee from all users of the road. The improvement thus becomes self-supporting and works a hardship on no one.

A covered wagon with scanty springs and frequently no back to the seats traverses the turnpike between villages at stated intervals, carrying the United States mail and such passengers and freight as

MODEL OF STAGE-COACH.



The small city arises.

may chance to offer. As business increases, the wagon is exchanged for a stage or coach swung on leather straps and springs. Passengers are accommodated both inside and on top of the vehicle, and the baggage is carried in a "boot" at the back.

Meanwhile the village at the head of navigation has become a small city. The pioneer farmer has removed to his farm or has been supplanted by the large farmer who comes with capital, the latest implements, and an enterprise utterly beyond the conception of his predecessor. Perhaps the farm lands are bought up by a syndicate or a large holder and an embryonic system of foreign landlordism arises. Steamboats ply upon the river, bringing new residents and their belongings.

Government improvements.

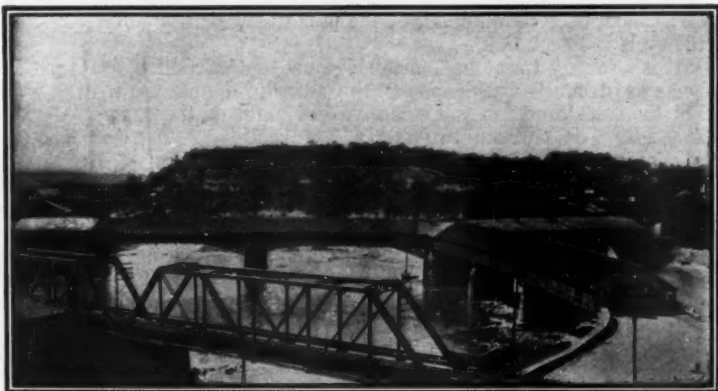
At the falls the crude water-wheel has been replaced by an improved turbine or the water-power has been superseded by steam. By means of a "race" or artificial channel, the water is conveyed to various parts of the city for power. The rope ferry is supplanted by a steam ferry or a bridge. Vessels pass about the falls through a canal with a series of locks. The United States government built the canal and now dredges the river channel, removes sunken logs and "snags," and establishes lights at

FLOATING BRIDGE
AT A FERRY.

suitable points for the guidance of river pilots. It also issues an official chart showing the channels and depths of all navigable waters.

A canal to connect the head of the river with the head of some stream on the other side of the watershed is begun by private enterprise but encouraged by gifts of land and money from the national and state governments. Reservoirs to secure water for the canal are constructed

Canals.

OLD Y BRIDGE AT
ZANESVILLE, OHIO.

on high levels. Where the watershed reaches too great a height for sufficient water, a system of "inclined planes" with stationary engines is provided. The cargo of the canal-boat is loaded upon cars and these are drawn up the tracks of the planes by endless ropes passing over large wheels of an engine. The cars are drawn by horses along the levels be-

Inclined planes.

⁴There were many inclined planes projected and several built. The most famous was the Portage railroad over the Allegheny mountains, connecting the eastern and western Pennsylvania canals. It was thirty-six miles long and had five planes on each side. The summit was two thousand four hundred and ninety-one feet above tide-water. The "Pictorial Sketch Book of Pennsylvania" says: "Hitched to a little old rickety locomotive, . . . we are tugged, two or three miles, over a steep ascending grade, to the foot of the first inclined plane. Here the cars are attached to an endless wire rope, winding round large iron wheels, placed horizontally, at each end of the plane. When all is ready, a signal is given to the engineer at the head of the plane, who immediately sets the stationary steam-engine in motion, and the rope begins its accustomed travel. It is prevented from touching or dragging the ground by numerous little wooden wheels, which revolve rapidly whenever the rope falls low enough to touch them. The ascent is soon made, and the same process is repeated at each of the other planes."

CANAL AND
INCLINED PLANES
OVER THE
ALLEGHENIES.



Arrival of the
locomotive.

The evolution of the
means of travel.

The coming country
predicted.

European
immigrants.

tween the planes and are let down on the other side of the mountain to reload the canal-boats. The boat itself is sometimes built in sections, to be carried in that way over the planes and reassembled on the other side. After many rumors, a steam locomotive drawing a train of cars steals in serpentine curves up the bank of the river, bringing promoters of vast enterprises, extensive capital, an army of operatives, raw material, luxuries, the leisure class, the proletariat, palaces and slums, and the cycle is complete.

It is a far cry from the Indian wigwam to the comfortable American home and from the packhorse of the pioneer to the palatial railway train. But the transformation was accomplished through the expansion of the American people within two and a half centuries. In some places it required less than so many decades. With variations of degree and agencies employed, similar transformations have occurred in the prior history of civilization, but never before on such an extensive scale, in such a limited time, and with such excellence of comfort and economy.

The Ohio valley presented in its unbroken stretch the best opportunity for these stages of evolution of the frontier, and here it may be studied in its regular order. Two years before the Declaration of Independence, Pelatiah Webster predicted of what was then a wilderness:

"From the Allegheny mountains to the sources of the Missouri, five hundred miles west of the Mississippi, a strip one hundred and fifty miles wide are the finest lands and the most healthful climate in the universe, and naturally secure of the advantages of the most extensive inland navigation and will in time be the seat of a grand population in America, from whence the numerous legions must issue, that will give law to the whole land. These ideas are indeed vast and will therefore, without any regard to their natural probability, be treated as chimerical; but, if sagely weighed, must be allowed of great moment and importance. Another century will begin to realize them."⁵

Webster might have shortened his time to half a century and still have been within the limit of subsequent realization. The rapid peopling of this region was due largely to the tide of European immigration which set in to America at the close of the Napoleonic wars. It is estimated that thirty thousand emigrants arrived in 1817, the larger portion from Ireland. At first the movement was toward Alabama, but it soon turned toward the Ohio and upper Mississippi valleys.⁶ The newcomers generally settled among the native Americans, and most fortunately, since other-

⁵ Pelatiah Webster, of Massachusetts, wrote on economic and political questions before, during and after the Revolution. Some think he first suggested the Constitutional Convention of 1787.

⁶ See note 6 on opposite page.

FROM AN OLD
ADVERTISEMENT

wise race amalgamation would have been delayed. Scattering settlements were attempted, like the Welsh in the "Welsh Hills" of Ohio, the Swiss at Vevay, Indiana, the English at Albion, Illinois, the Dutch at Holland, Michigan, and, later, the Germans and Scandinavians in various towns in Wisconsin. These segregations have always become thoroughly "Americanized."

The drain upon the population of Europe caused alarm, and steps were taken in some countries to check it. When those who had come sent

letters descriptive of the opportunities presented in their new homes, Cobbett and other writers tried to counteract their effect. Perhaps the most prominent of these attempts was made later by Charles Dickens in depicting

ABANDONED
PORTAGE RAILROAD,
ALLEGHENY
MOUNTAINS.

the doleful experiences of "Martin Chuzzlewit" as an immigrant at Eden, on the Ohio river. The country looked "as if the waters of the deluge might have left it a week before," and as if it might be "the grim domains of Giant Despair." The boat "might have been old Charon's boat conveying melancholy shades to judgment." The animus of the writing is seen in the advice given by Bevan to Martin as he is returning, "Make your government more careful of its subjects when they roam abroad to live. Tell it what you know of emigration in your own case."

Efforts of English
writers.

⁶ In one year 97,736 passengers left Buffalo for the west. During another year ninety vessels reached Detroit, one carrying seven hundred people. The first stanza of a song circulated in the eastern states to induce migration runs:

"Come, all ye Yankee farmers who wish to change your lot,
Who've spunk enough to travel beyond your native spot,
And leave behind the village where pa and ma do stay;
Come, follow me and settle in Michigania."

⁷ William Cobbett, an English writer and attempted reformer, left his country through fear of punishment, and dwelt an exile for two years on Long Island.

CHAPTER XXII.

COMMUNICATION AND THE EXPANSION OF THE FEDERAL UNION.

State theories and
union building.

Not even the sarcasm of Dickens could stop the stream of immigration from Europe which added itself to that from the Atlantic seaboard until it thronged every waterway and highway leading into the middle west. Thus while statesmen in Congress were debating the relative amount of power given to the central union and that reserved to the respective states under the constitution, the people were solving the question by their demands for better communication which the union alone was prepared to satisfy. Their affection for the state was gradually undermined. When the legislatures of Virginia and Kentucky in 1798 were voicing the protests of those states against the encroachment of the union on their reserved rights,¹ Moses Cleaveland was breaking through the barriers of the northern route and founding a city in territory under the exclusive

control of the federal union. During the years that Calhoun was preparing to demonstrate his theory of the right of a state to nullify a trespassing act of the central government,² that agency was constructing roads, aiding canals, dredging rivers, maintaining lighthouses, and constructing harbors in the various states. While Hayne was eloquently pleading in the Senate for the rights of South Carolina,³ the federal government was demonstrating both its necessity and its usefulness by engaging in many of these works in that very state.

Three of the powers expressly given to Congress by the constitution and which had been stretched by necessity to cover such enterprises were: 1. To establish post-offices and post-roads. 2. To raise and support armies. 3. To regulate commerce.



UNITED STATES POST
ROUTES, 1790.

Union-making
powers.

The first line of posts under the constitution extended along the coast from Wiscasset, Maine, to Savannah, Georgia, with spurs to Concord (New Hampshire), Albany (New York), Pittsburg (Pennsylvania), Annapolis (Maryland), and Norfolk (Virginia). Mail was carried over the northern main route three times per week in summer and twice per week in winter. To Pittsburg the mail was sent every two weeks. There were fifty-five post-offices on the main line and twenty-five on the cross lines. Postage was generally collected at the end of the journey and was rated according to the distance. The average rate for all letters mailed was about

The first line of
posts.

¹ The Federalist majority, under the scare of a possible war with France, passed the Alien and Sedition laws in 1798, by which the president could order a dangerous alien to leave, or under certain circumstances not to enter the United States. The Sedition laws provided punishment for printing anything derogatory of the government or its officers. The legislatures of some states protested against the general government thus interfering with citizens of a state.

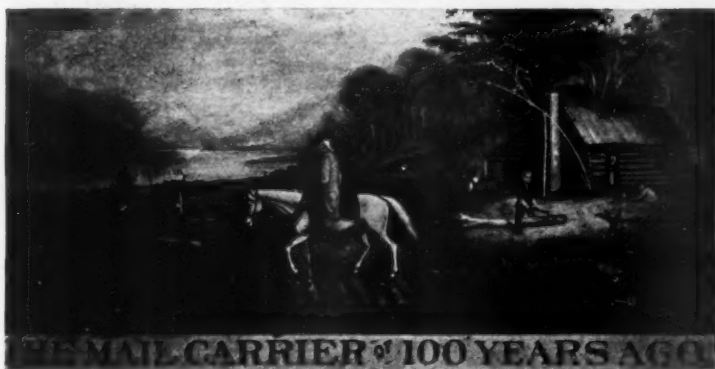
² This was the celebrated nullification theory, a midpoint between protest and secession.

³ In the Hayne-Webster debate of 1830.

fifteen cents. To send a letter from Georgia to New York cost thirty-six cents. There were some twenty contractors, and since each consulted his convenience as to time of starting there was no connection of mails. The expenses of the postal department amounted to about twenty thousand dollars annually. Newspapers were carried free. The income of the department was also decreased by ship captains in the coast trade carrying mail.

In 1792 Congress extended the postal routes from Richmond, Virginia, across the mountains to Danville, Kentucky. Two years later, routes were opened west of the Hudson river and from Kentucky into Tennessee. By 1800 the mails were extended to Syracuse, New York, up the Susquehanna to northwestern Pennsylvania, and through the Northwest Territory along Zane's trace. In 1803 a route was established between Cincinnati and Detroit, but so late as 1815 mail reached the latter place from Cleveland only once a week, and often the pouch did not contain a letter or

The government opens post-roads.



FROM AN OLD PRINT.

paper because connections had been missed at the point of starting.⁴ In a majority of cases the mail contractor could use existing roads, but sometimes new roads had to be opened, and they fostered the hope that the national government would continue to grant such favors in the newly settled region.

The constitutional power of Congress to raise and support an army included the power of moving the troops from place to place and constructing roads for such purposes where none existed. Yet waterways were at hand and afforded such easy routes that few roads were constructed for military purposes. The first necessity for moving troops occurred in the War of 1812, and then it found the United States unprepared. The "warhawks" who brought on the war had boasted upon the floor of Congress that the American arms would invade Canada and roll it up. The humiliating experiences of the western campaigns were due largely to lack of means of communication. When Harrison made his expedition, Governor Meigs of Ohio had to call out his rangers to cut a way through that state. The suffering of the soldiers from lack of supplies almost surpasses belief. The waterways were of some service when frozen, but could not be depended upon. In the summer many of the streams were dried up. A member of Congress said afterward: "Weeks, nay, I may say months, elapsed in the forwarding of ordnance, anchors, etc., from the seaboard to the north frontier of New York. I am not

Lack of communication in the War of 1812.

⁴The north and south main stem shifted to an east and west direction only after the construction of trans-continental railroads. In 1845 charges for letter carriage were reduced to five and ten cents, according to distance, and between 1851 and 1855 to a set fee of three cents, regardless of distance. In 1832 mails were carried on the railroads, and in 1862 were sorted on the cars en route.

certain that the anchor of the last great ship built at Sackett's harbor has yet (1817) reached that place." Another described the condition of a road which had been partly constructed through the Black Swamp in northwestern Ohio: "Not a solitary traveler now finds his way along that avenue; it is principally indicated by the broken remnants of baggage-wagons and gun-carriages, scattered remains of flour barrels and the mouldering skeletons of horses and oxen, remaining as they were left just visible above the surface of the mud and wet which destroyed them."

A practice had grown up gradually of allowing the United States soldiers stationed at the various military posts to work on public roads leading to the posts. It was a relief from the soldier's monotonous life, and added fifteen cents and an extra gill of whiskey to his daily pay. The acquisition of Louisiana and Florida demonstrated still more the need

of roads which had been experienced in the War of 1812, and Congress legalized this practice of employing soldiers. Before 1828, over two thousand miles of military roads had been made, and over five hundred miles were in process of construction. They were built mostly in the territories, and since Congress possessed the right of governing the terri-



The government builds military roads.

UNITED STATES
MILITARY ROADS
BEFORE 1830.

ories, its power of constructing these roads was not questioned.⁸ But every instance added a precedent for the construction by the government of means of communication.

So many difficulties of the old Articles of Confederation were traceable directly to the retention of the control of commerce by the respective states, that the federal government under the constitution had little opposition in taking the steps necessary to open all the channels of the coast trade. Existing lighthouses and sites for new ones were accepted from the states. Wrecks were removed from channels, and channels cleared of sand. As the country became settled, internal commerce was developed and demanded similar aids. Some of the advocates for the rights of the states would have discriminated between tide-water and fresh-water commerce, allowing the union to foster the one and leaving the other to the care of states. Such distinction was a physical impossibility.⁹

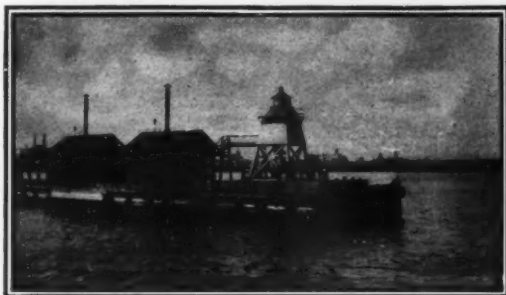
The government regulates external and internal commerce.

⁸Gallatin contemplated a great military and post road from Maine to Georgia, with radiating branches from Washington to New Orleans, St. Louis and Detroit. Surveys were made but constitutional difficulties prevented action. It would pass through some of the states.

⁹The advocates of internal improvements ridiculed this distinction by suggesting the appointment of a chemist to determine the constitutionality of an appropriation. The money given by Congress for rivers and harbors between 1789 and 1892 amounted to over \$236,000,000. See the reports of the Chief of Engineers, United States Army.

It was equally impossible to separate the internal commerce on waterways from the internal commerce on connecting highways. Public highways are essential to communication, and communication to unionism. Without communication there can be no uniformity of ideals, customs, thought or action. The Greek republic, even on a petty scale, never rose above a bundle of states, separated by mountains. Isolation prevented true union. This necessary communication may be personal, by letter, by newspaper, or by exchange of goods. Newly married couples who went westward to seek a home never completely severed their relations with the old home. Exchange of visits meant better roadways and means of travel. Now, travel in itself is an excellent means of education, as well as an incentive to pride of country and consequent patriotism. The broad-minded traveled man is the best patriot in the end, although a shallower vessel may tinkle more loudly. Letter-writing means an exchange of ideas, and gratitude to the government which transports the mails. For the mails and the newspapers better roads

Communication a requisite for union.



must be provided. The newspapers create a desire for novelties of fashion and comfort, and an interchange of commodities follows. This resulting transfer of goods means better methods of transportation. Thus the union is made by a series of inter-related and reaction-

A LIGHT AND FOG HORNS ON THE GREAT LAKES.

ary agencies. No view of the making of the union is complete which omits the evolution and influence of means of transportation.

The "road laws" of the colonies were copied from those of England. In 1285 a statute had been passed requiring the widening of all roads between market towns in England to prevent robberies, but it was not until 1555 that the demand for better roads brought a compulsory labor of four days in every year from every parishioner for mending the roads. Toll-gates were introduced in England soon after the Restoration of 1688.

Beginnings of road laws.

The necessity for roads between the villages of New England and the middle colonies was much more urgent than in the sparsely settled rural population of the southern colonies. Before the close of the last century there were fifty turnpike companies in Connecticut alone, owning 770 miles of road. Companies had been chartered in New York to build over eight thousand miles of such roads, and there was a continuous line of good turnpikes from Boston to Philadelphia. The Philadelphia and Lancaster turnpike was the first road built toward the west and its charter permitted its extension to Pittsburg. A road was planned to parallel the Susquehanna and ultimately reach Lake Erie for the purpose of diverting to Philadelphia the trade which would otherwise have gone to New York. Maryland began the construction of a turnpike to Fort Cumberland on the Potomac, and Virginia inaugurated a similar enterprise to lead eventually to Kentucky. These private enterprises were confined to the Atlantic coast plain trade and migration demanded a route over the mountains, the cost of which would be entirely beyond the means of these companies. Under the most innocent guise and in a form to which even the adherents to a strict construction of the national powers of government could not object, the United States had authorized the building of a great highway from the Atlantic drainage basin to the Mississippi basin. It grew into the great Cumberland national turnpike.

Internal commerce demands roads.

Beginning the construction of the Cumberland road.



CUMBERLAND NATIONAL ROAD, APPROXIMATE DATES OF COMPLETION.

CHAPTER XXIII.

THE CUMBERLAND NATIONAL ROAD AND THE ERIE CANAL.

Choosing the
shortest portages.

When Ohio was admitted to the union, provision was made for giving that state five per cent of the proceeds of the sales of United States lands lying within it in return for the non-taxation by the state of those lands for five years. The state was allowed to spend three-fifths of this fund in constructing roads, and the remaining two-fifths were to be spent by the United States in building a road over the mountains to connect the state with the seaboard. Similar provisions were made when Indiana, Illinois and Missouri were admitted. By 1805 the two per cent amounted to some twelve thousand dollars, and commissioners were appointed who examined several routes and finally selected one extending from Fort Cumberland on the Potomac river to Wheeling (now West Virginia) on the Ohio. Allowing for deviations from an air-line, the road would be about one hundred and forty-one miles long. It was the shortest portage from navigation on the Atlantic coast to the Ohio river. Indeed, at only fifty-one miles from Fort Cumberland the road crossed the Youghiogheny river which flowed eventually into the Ohio.

Growth of
precedent.

Since the fund had not increased sufficiently to build the road, the United States treasury made an advance or loan upon expectations of future sales of land. Advances were thus made by congressional appropriations from time to time, until the demand for the completion of the road compelled Congress to cast aside the pretence of a loan, and to give money openly for this purpose. When the road was completed to Wheeling about 1820, the states of Indiana, Illinois and Missouri demanded the extension of the road, since their compact with the government promised a road to those states. The extension was located through Columbus, the capital of Ohio, through Indianapolis, the capital of Indiana, through Vandalia, the capital of Illinois, to Jefferson City, the capital of Missouri. Work was begun at different places and carried on under appropriations of Congress.

Benefits create
demands.

The history of these demands illustrates the worst feature of this species of paternalism. It arouses the cupidity of the people. A dollar obtained from the public treasury is regarded as a gift of the gods. It comes directly from the pocket of no one. Further, every neighbor of a recipient thinks himself entitled to the same benefit. A congressman, therefore, feels himself obliged to get as much as possible for his constituency. On the other hand, nothing has contributed more to the comfort and welfare of the people in their expansion over the continent than the great system of public improvements inaugurated and carried on by the central government. For the Cumberland national road alone sixty distinct appropriations were made between 1806 and 1833, giving the sum of \$6,821,246.

In constructing the road the trees were removed from a space sixty

feet in width, and in the middle a strip thirty feet wide was entirely cleared and leveled. In the middle of this thirty feet another strip twenty feet wide was covered with crushed stone to the depth of eighteen inches in the center, sloping to twelve inches at the sides. The pieces of stone were to be small enough to pass through a ring seven inches in diameter for the bottom layers and three inches for the top dressing.

Before the building of the extension from Wheeling, Macadam¹ began in England his experiments on improved road making, and the new portion of the road was constructed according to his ideas. The chief reform consisted in elevating the roadway for drainage rather than in excavating for its bed. In the level country west of the Ohio river the cost of the road was not much more than half the cost of constructing it over the mountains. The route from Vandalia to Jefferson City was in dispute, owing to the great rivalry of St. Louis and Alton as crossing places. In 1831 Congress allowed the state of Ohio to collect toll on the road for its repair and protection, and by 1856 had surrendered to the various states through which it passed the portions lying within each. The states completed the unfinished portions, and over the eight hundred and thirty-four miles of the "National Pike" there poured a stream of colonists bound into the west. The time of the stage between Baltimore and Wheeling was reduced from eight to three days. In 1815 the Great Western Mail was started over the road, the prepayment of postage being required for this special service. Inns sprang up along the road at convenient distances.

A member of the House of Representatives described the enormous travel on the road in 1824: "In a favorable season for migration, the traveler on this highway will scarcely lose sight of passengers of some description. Hundreds of families are seen migrating to the west with ease and comfort. Drovers from the west with their cattle of almost every description are seen passing eastward seeking a market on this side the mountains." Indeed, this thoroughfare may be compared to a great street through some populous city — travelers on foot, on horseback, and in carriages are seen mingling on its paved surface, all seeming to enjoy the pleasure of the journey, and to have a consciousness of the great benefits derived from it." The investigator of the migration of American families will find all through the middle west descendants of pioneers who journeyed in covered wagons and on horseback over the Cumberland national road.⁴

Henry Clay, who is rightly called the father of the Cumberland road,⁵ contemplated a branch leading from Ohio through Kentucky to New Orleans. He succeeded in getting a measure through Congress authorizing a government subscription to one section extending from Maysville to Lexington, Kentucky, but it was vetoed by President Jackson on the ground that the road was not national and the measure therefore uncon-

Building the road.

Extent of the completed road.

Life on the Cumberland road.

Clay loses the Maysville road.

¹ John Loudon Macadam, a Scotch engineer, devised the principle of elevating the road-bed of highways instead of excavating to a level for them. This would allow drainage. He also covered the surface with some fine material which would pack under wear.

² "State pride" in Illinois would not let St. Louis be benefited by becoming the crossing place. This contest crept into Congress and delayed appropriations, so that little work was done on the road by the United States beyond Vandalia.

³ A farmer named Renick, living near Chillicothe, Ohio, is said to have started the practice of driving fattened stock to eastern markets. The profits were sufficiently great to stand the loss in weight. Rev. Timothy Flint on his journey over the Allegheny mountains met a drove of a thousand hogs and cattle as rough and shaggy as wolves and their drivers as untamed and wild in looks as Crusoe's man, Friday.

⁴ See the proposed study of the migration of families in THE CHAUTAUQUAN for February, 1900.

⁵ Clay said that the people were so grateful that he could travel free from one end of the Cumberland road to the other. Toll-gates opened to him and landlords would accept no pay. His journeys between Kentucky and Washington were continued ovations. See THE CHAUTAUQUAN, Vol. XIII., and Harper's Magazine, 1879.

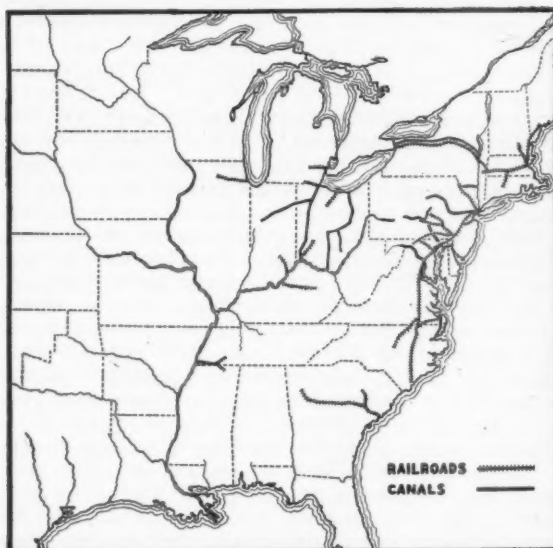
stitutional. It was necessary on several occasions for a president to call the people back from their zeal for appropriations. As one result, the people of Kentucky were aroused and built the road from their own resources.

Beginnings of
artificial waterways

Land transportation by wagon is much more expensive than water carriage, and cannot be conducted on an extensive scale without the expenditure of a large sum for equipment.⁶ Artificial water communication was an early subject of investigation and agitation among the colonists. In 1759 the Duke of Bridgewater had begun in England his experiments in canals for barges, which resulted in giving that country over four thousand miles of inland navigation. The attention of the Philadelphia Philosophical Society was called to this subject, and it caused a line of levels to be run between the Delaware and the Schuylkill rivers. After

the Revolution, a "Society for Promoting the Improvement of Roads and Inland Navigation" was organized, with Robert Morris, the financier and promoter, as first president. In 1794 Virginia opened the Dismal Swamp canal, twenty-nine miles long, the first in America. It was to be one link in a vast chain of inland navigation,

RAILROADS AND
CANALS IN 1847.



by means of which the coast commerce could be carried on during times of war and blockade. It would require a canal from Cape Cod bay to Buzzard's bay, which is almost within the shelter of Long Island sound; from Newark bay to the Delaware river; from the Delaware to Chesapeake bay; thence to the Dismal Swamp, and by the Dismal Swamp canal to Albemarle and Pamlico sounds. War vessels of light draft could thus defend the coast from Massachusetts to Carolina without danger of undue exposure to the enemy or wreck in doubling capes. Several of these projected canals were begun, but they were confined to the Atlantic coast trade; they failed to satisfy the demands of the people across the mountains for an outlet.

The west desires an
outlet to the east.

The acquisition of Louisiana had opened the Mississippi route for the marketing of western products, but New Orleans did not prove a seaport attractive to foreign vessels. Toward the east it was farther from Europe than the Atlantic seaports and past the dangerous Florida Keys. Toward the west nothing could be hoped for until an isthmian canal should be constructed. The hopes of the trans-Alleghenians again turned toward



⁶ Engineers claimed that a horse would draw one ton on a good road in a cart weighing seven hundred pounds at a rate of two miles an hour. On a canal the same animal could draw thirty tons in a boat weighing ninety thousand pounds. The canal increased the transporting power of the horse thirty times.

the Atlantic. The Great Lakes formed a system of inland seas, the largest in the world, but their outlet passed through foreign territory, involving the annoyance of customs duties. An artificial water communication with the coast was imperative. Where and by whom should it be built? The strict constructionists now in full power would likely prevent national aid and turn the project over to some enterprising state.

In his famous report in 1808, Albert Gallatin, secretary of the treasury, had pointed out the three great watersheds east of the Mississippi, and the necessity of providing communication between them.⁷ The Allegheny mountains made a canal impossible, a fact of which the Philadelphians were keenly aware. On the other hand, New York realized that the Hudson river burst through the northern remnant of the mountains at the Highlands and that Troy, the head of navigation, was really beyond the barrier. West of Troy lay a fertile region inviting settlement, but with no means of communication. Beyond lay the Great Lakes. The project of the Erie canal from Troy to Buffalo, after years of agitation, was realized in 1825 when the booming of cannon stationed at intervals along the line proclaimed that the lakes and the sea were united. A few weeks later a cask filled with water at the western terminus and brought to New York was emptied with great ceremony into the harbor. It was the "wedding of the waters."⁸ The effect of the canal on New York was soon felt. In 1790 Philadelphia had been almost one-third larger than New York City. In 1825 they were equal, and in 1860 New York was twice the size of Philadelphia.

The Erie route to the west.

The Erie canal also exerted a powerful influence through the lake regions. Between 1820 and 1840 the states north of the Ohio and east of the Mississippi increased as a whole over 360 per cent in population. They began to project canals between their waterways. In 1828, Governor Clinton, of New York, known as the father of the Erie canal, was the guest of the state of Ohio, and turned the first earth in the canal system which that state inaugurated between Lake Erie and the Ohio river.⁹ Rivalry between different cities caused two parallel lines to be built eventually, but the investment was regarded as profitable by the taxpayers.

New York influences Ohio.

Indiana had fewer inhabitants and contented herself with the Wabash canal, which would provide a route from the western end of Lake Erie to the Ohio transversely through her territory. Illinois, still more thinly populated, projected the Illinois and Michigan canal, forming an outlet from the lower end of that lake to the Illinois river, and thence to the Mississippi at the future city of Alton. Michigan planned a canal from Mt. Clemens to the mouth of the Kalamazoo river, but abandoned the project. Wisconsin inaugurated the Wisconsin and Fox river improvement.¹⁰

Other western state canals.

Congress gave public lands to aid many of these enterprises,¹¹ although the low prices at which the lands were disposed of often robbed the undertaking of its just rewards.



⁷ This report may be found in the American State Papers, Vol. XX., page 729.

⁸ For an account of the triumphal journey of Governor Clinton in a barge from Erie to New York, see "Niles's Register," Vol. XXV. Other canals were added until New York had 906 miles of artificial waterways.

⁹ Governor Morrow, of Ohio, turned the second spadeful of earth, and Thomas Ewing, the orator of the day, the third. The Chillicothe Guards were present. Food had been brought twenty-one miles from Lancaster, and dinner was spread in a grove on tables improvised from newly-sawed boards. Governor Clinton made a tour of the state as a public guest.

¹⁰ Six thousand miles of canals were constructed in the United States, of which one-third has been abandoned.

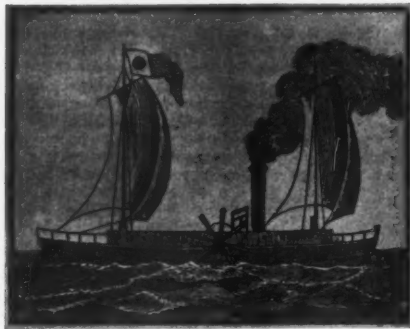
¹¹ Over four million acres were so granted, besides the cash of the "surplus distribution" of 1837.

CHAPTER XXIV.

STEAMBOATS AND RAILROADS IN THE MIDDLE WEST.

Evolution of
western steamboats.

The first experiments in steam navigation, described heretofore, led in 1807 to Fulton's *Clermont*, which inaugurated a permanent passenger service between New York and Albany. Within four years the art had crossed the mountains, and the *New Orleans* was launched at Pittsburg, the beginning of the surprising shipbuilding industry which soon sprang up along the Monongahela. In 1815 a vessel demonstrated the possibility of steam against the current by going from New Orleans to Pittsburg in a month and five days. Twenty-five days were consumed in reaching Louisville. Much care had to be taken in avoiding "snags and sawyers."¹



FULTON'S FIRST
AMERICAN BOAT.

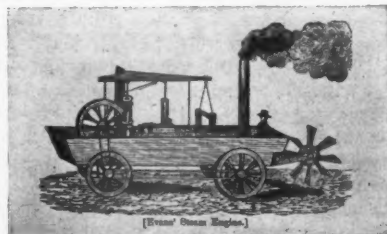
Adventurous captains also took their light draught vessels up the Mississippi above St. Louis and up the Missouri as far as the Yellowstone region. Steam navigation was begun on the Great Lakes when the *Walk-in-the-Water* started from Black Rock, near Cleveland, Ohio, for Detroit. It eventually reached Mackinac.² But it was not until 1832 that a steamboat reached Chicago.

Small beginning of
railways.

The stages of the evolution of the railroad train from the wheeled wagon are so many and so slight in difference that the dates and places of "first" things remain in much dispute. So early as 1680, strips of wood or rock ledges were used for cars in the coal mines of England, and by 1738 the wood was surfaced with strips of iron. Such roads were used in the United States before 1825 for carrying earth in the construction of canals and for transporting blocks of stone. Two years later the force of gravity was used in propelling cars in the Mauch Chunk collieries, the cars being drawn up the incline by mules.

OLIVER EVANS'
LAND AND WATER
BOAT.

Several American applications of steam to carriages were made by inventors, one of the most interesting being that of Oliver Evans, who built his "Oracta Amphibolis"³ to run upon the water or upon the land. His craft created much excitement when run through the streets of Philadelphia. Every incident connected with the experiments of



¹ Old trees floating in the rivers often sank to the bottom and became partly imbedded, leaving a projecting limb or root to form a "snag." If the limb or trunk was only partly fixed, it rose and fell in the current and seemed to saw the water. It was called a "sawyer." The rivers had accumulated many of these dangers to navigation in the process of the ages, and government "snag-boats" were employed in removing them. Those who opposed such work on constitutional grounds were said to be in favor of "snags, sawyers and the constitution forever!"

² This vessel was rather oval in shape, with side wheels. It was named after an old Indian chief. Those Indians who saw it on its journey claimed the fulfillment of a prophecy that a huge canoe drawn by sturgeons would come up the lakes.

³ Two Greek words meaning "created to run on both."

Stephenson in England was printed in the United States, and public expectation was aroused to a high pitch when the "Stourbridge Lion"⁴ arrived in 1829 to draw cars from the Honesdale, Pennsylvania, coal mines to the canal.

The same year, probably, the first railroad built in America expressly for a locomotive was constructed from Charleston to Columbia, South Carolina. Cars were drawn upon it at first by horses, then driven by sail, and eventually drawn by a locomotive called the "Best Friend." Extended to Hawley, it became the longest railroad at the time in the United States, and first carried the mails. Maryland probably constructed the first railroad, the Baltimore and Ohio, by public charter. Charles Carroll, of Revolutionary fame, turned the first earth, and it was opened as far as the Relay House in

1830. A trial of speed between horses and a locomotive was witnessed by a great crowd.⁵ In 1832 the road was extended westward to the "Point of Rocks," and excursionists made the round trip of one hundred and forty miles in seventeen hours. In 1835 there were two hundred miles of railroad in operation in Pennsylvania, one hundred and thirty-seven in South Carolina, one hundred and thirty in Virginia and one hundred each in Massachusetts, New York, and New Jersey.⁶

These first roads were constructed solely as feeders to the canals and as connections between natural waterways. No one supposed that the railroad could ever supplant the canal, and a contest went on between the two for ten years before the railroad demonstrated its superiority in cheapness, speed, and ease of construction. The first railroads were so defective that they had to be rebuilt.

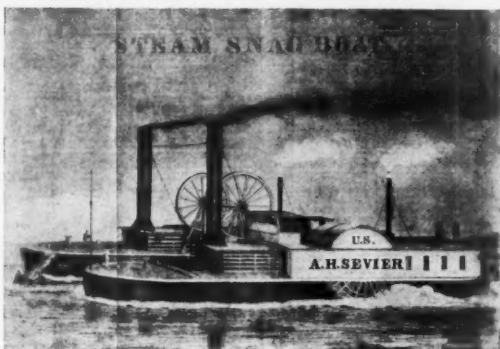


⁴There was a head of a lion painted on the front of the locomotive, and it was built at Stourbridge, England.

⁵Charles Carroll, of Maryland, was the last survivor of the signers of the Declaration of Independence, dying in 1832 at the age of ninety-five. The Relay station received its name from the practice of keeping a fresh relay of horses for the cars at that place. "Peter Parley's" First Book of History, printed about 1830, says: "But the most curious thing at Baltimore is the railroad. I must tell you that there is a great trade between Baltimore and the states west of the Allegheny mountains. . . . Now in order to carry on all this business more easily, the people are building what they call a railroad. This consists of iron bars laid along the ground, and made fast so that carriages with small wheels may run along them with facility. In this way, each horse will be able to draw as much as ten horses on a common road. A part of this railroad is already done, and if you choose to take a ride upon it, you may do so. You will mount a carriage something like a stage and then you will be drawn along by two horses at the rate of twelve miles an hour."

⁶Number of miles of railways in operation in the United States in different years:

1830—32.	1840—2818.
1831—95.	1842—4026.
1832—229.	1847—5598.
1833—380.	1850—10982.
1834—633.	1860—30635.
1835—1098.	1897—184603.
1838—1913.	



Rapid growth of railways.

THE GOVERNMENT IMPROVING WESTERN RIVERS.

Inferior construction of early railways.

A HANDBILL.



"First a mud-sill was laid down lengthwise of the road; strong cross ties were then spiked on this mud-sill; into these 'gains' were cut, and these received the wooden rails sawed to fit them. These rails were about five inches wide at the top, broadening at the bottom where they entered the gains, and were about seven inches high. On these the 'ribbon' was spiked, being a strip of hard wood about two and one-half inches wide by one inch thick, and on this the strap-iron was laid. Spikes were driven through the strap-rail and the ribbon into the large wooden rail beneath; the heads of the spikes being sunken into 'eyes' in the strap-rails, leaving a smooth surface for the wheels."

With such construction, accidents were numerous. It became necessary

in many instances to sheath the bottom of passenger coaches to prevent the strap-iron piercing the cars by becoming loosened and curling over the wheels. The cars were modeled after the stage coaches, and passengers were "booked" by name when purchasing tickets.

Railway poetry.

Many stories are told of the wonder and even alarm of the people upon the advent of the locomotive. Great celebrations were held in honor of the completion of a railroad, and sometimes the state officials were carried upon the first train. A local poet describes in the *Western Magazine* such an occasion:

The mothers ran out with their children about —
From every log cabin they hail;
The wood-chopper he stood delighted to see
The law-makers ride on a rail.
The horses and cattle, as onward we rattle,
Were never so frightened before.

Other rhymsters were filled with the impulse of the new era,⁷ although the teamsters felt that the railroad would be a formidable competitor. One stanza current among them ran:

Oh, it's once I made money by driving my team,
But now all is hauled on the railroad by steam.
May the devil catch the man that invented the plan,
For it's ruined us poor wagoners, and every other man.

The speculation craze of 1836.

The remarkable growth of internal commerce, the rapid development of intra-continental communication, and the marvelous growth of western population brought on the speculating mania of 1836-8. Cities were staked out in the wilderness, town lots without any definite location brought extravagant prices, and companies were exploited for the most



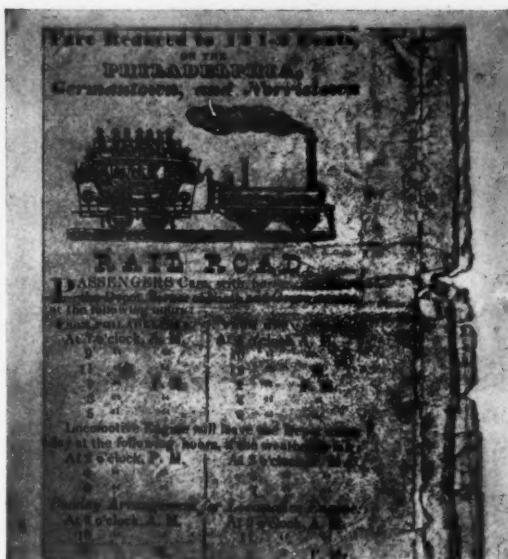
⁷ One "poem" begins:

The world is too busy for dreaming,
And hath grown too wise for war;
So today, for the glory of Science,
Let us sing of the Railway Car.

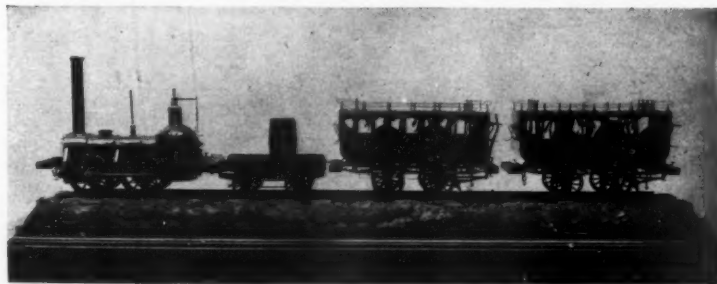
chimerical purposes. The Great Western railroad was projected to run from New York to Lake Erie and thence westward to the Mississippi at the mouth of the Rock river. It was to be built on piling, and it was said that it could be constructed at the rate of twenty rods a day. The total length of one thousand and fifty miles would cost fifteen million dollars. Lands were received for subscriptions at extravagant prices. A

farm, which had been appraised at ten dollars an acre, brought one hundred dollars an acre when converted into stock. Seven lots in "Ohio City" brought one thousand dollars each. Cities were staked out along the proposed route. Some feared that in time all the farming land would be so used and a famine ensue.

Other "paper roads" crossed the country in all directions, and "ter-



FROM THE GERMAN-TOWN TELEGRAPH, MAY 21, 1834.



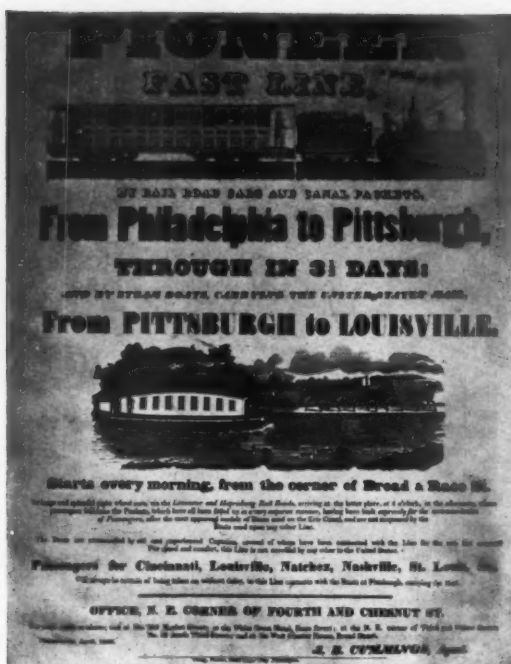
MODEL OF MOHAWK & HUDSON RAILWAY TRAIN.

minal cities" were laid out on magnificent proportions. Many lots were purchased in the city of Manhatta before it was discovered that it lay in a swamp two miles below Toledo, Ohio. Men took great chances. A lot was bought in "Fairport Harbor" for two thousand five hundred dollars that has now returned to farm land; another swampy tract of one hundred and two acres near the lower end of Lake Michigan sold for \$127,864, and afterwards became a part of the city of Chicago. Many town sites containing great bargains in lots were sent from Chicago to the eastern cities.

The legislature of Illinois reflected the popular demand when it planned the construction of thirteen hundred miles of state railroad to cost over a billion dollars, the improvement of five rivers at a cost of nearly a half million, and the distribution of two hundred thousand dollars to the few counties containing neither a railroad nor a river improvement. Of these extravagant sums, over eight million dollars were actually appropriated,

The madness of Illinois.

AN OLD HANDBILL.



Folly of other states.

RAILROAD SCRIP.

it was subsequently sold for eight cents on the dollar. The state gave to railroads almost two millions, and to canals six hundred thousand dollars. Michigan spent some eight millions on canals, rivers and railroads. Missouri escaped the fever of 1837, but in 1849 became responsible for twenty millions of dollars for aiding railroads.* The United States aided these enterprises in certain of the states. Public lands for constructing railroads were donated to Illinois, Mississippi, Alabama, Missouri, Arkansas, Michigan, Wisconsin, Iowa, Florida, and Louisiana.

Gradually link was added to link until long continuous journeys were possible. One could cross the state of New York by rail in 1843, but under sixteen companies. In 1853 the first consolidation



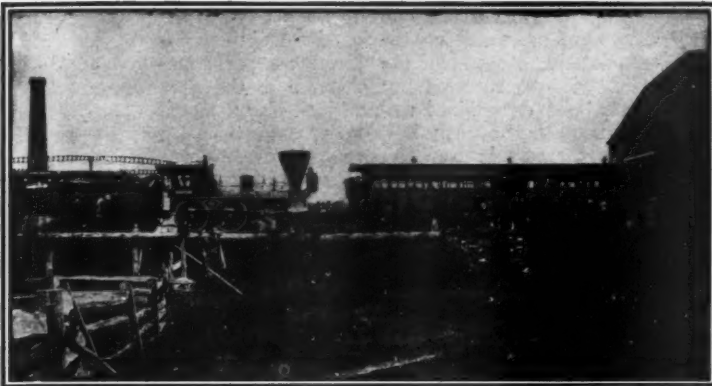
was effected in the New York Central. The same year the Erie was opened as

until the state debt amounted to \$29.78 for every inhabitant. When the governor-elect in 1842 entered upon his duties, there was not enough money in the state treasury to pay his postage.⁸

Ohio passed her "plunder law" in 1837, by which the state loaned her credit in six per cent stock to the amount of one-third the stock in any railroad enterprise, provided the other two-thirds were paid by the company. In ten years the state owned half a million in stock upon which not a cent had been received. Some of

⁸This statement is made by Governor Ford in his History of Illinois, page 278.

⁹The "wildcat" or state banks, which sprang up after the expiration of the second United States bank, added to this madness. Different states gave large sums to encourage these enterprises. In Michigan, before issuing paper money, a state bank was required to show a certain per cent of its capital, and it is said that the same specie, after satisfying the commissioners at one place, was sent on ahead of them to appear at the next point of application, and so would serve again and again. In 1839 there were forty-two banks in that state in the hands of receivers. One bank was found issuing money from a blacksmith's shop.



FIRST TRAIN TO
WEST CHESTER OVER
W. C. & P. R. R.
(From a daguerreotype.)

a rival route to the west, and the next year the Pennsylvania. With these "trunk lines" a new era of railroad-operating was opened. The process of leasing small lines and combining them into a system has grown into vast proportions.

Michigan had aided both the Michigan Central from Detroit to Kalamazoo and the Michigan Southern from Toledo to Hillsdale. From these points passengers went by stage to Michigan City and across the lake to Chicago. Both railways were extended, and, after a sharp contest in northern Indiana, rounded the lake and entered Chicago in 1852 within two days of each other. In the meantime the Galena¹⁰ and Chicago Union railroad had been built on piling from Chicago to Elgin, Illinois, and one Sunday forenoon in 185— a



Preparing for a
trans-continental
line.

LOCOMOTIVE
"PIONEER."

little locomotive called the "Pioneer" was unloaded from a boat at Chicago and began its work of hauling grain over the strap-iron rails. A trans-continental line would be next.

In 1825 came the first opportunity of appreciating the improved method of travel in the interior regions. General Lafayette, upon invitation of the president acting under orders of Congress, spent one year and four months as the nation's guest. At first his time was given to the eastern cities, but yielding to the demands of remoter places, he made a tour from Washington through Virginia to Georgia, thence to New Orleans and up the Mississippi and Ohio to Pittsburg. From here he went to Lake Erie, and, passing down the Erie canal, reached Boston in time to assist

Visit of Lafayette
to America.

¹⁰ The lead mines of the northwest were worked by the French. One in Iowa, owned by a man named Dubuque, gave name to a city. Galena, Illinois, became the center of the American lead industry and experienced a "boom" in 1828. Two of the first railroads projected in Illinois were to terminate there. Its population has decreased in recent years owing to the development of lead mines in other localities.

in the laying of the corner-stone for Bunker Hill monument. One hundred days were consumed on the journey of five thousand miles through seventeen states. About half the travel was performed by land and half by water. He was received in Baltimore in the tent formerly used by Washington, was entertained with a "ball play" by the Cherokees when passing through their country in Georgia, and attended both the American and French theaters in New Orleans. At every city and village he was received by lines of school children carrying banners and flowers. The

only unfortunate incident of the tour occurred when the steamboat *Mechanic* struck a snag between Memphis and Louisville and immediately sank. The unfortunate travelers escaped to the shore, the general losing his carriage and his baggage, including many valuable papers. The captain lamented the loss of his vessel but much more the unhappy plight into which he had put the nation's guest. He feared that he would never be forgiven. He did not realize what strength the accident would develop as an argument in favor of improving western navigation by appropriations from Congress.

Lafayette's visit gave ex-

pression to the silently growing pride of country. It showed how vast was the inhabited domain and yet how easily reached. Orators made contrast of the thirteen states when Lafayette had been last in America with the twenty-four at the present time; of the three millions population then and the twelve millions now. Medals commemorative of the event were struck, plates showing his reception in New York City were made, and Congress voted him two hundred thousand dollars and a township of land.

By contrast the Duke of Saxe-Weimar visited every state in the union the following year. The press welcomed him as "any ordinary mortal, even a cobbler," and when he departed pronounced him a "modest but prudent man who did not try to force his attention on republicans." The country was as yet both provincial and sensitive.¹¹

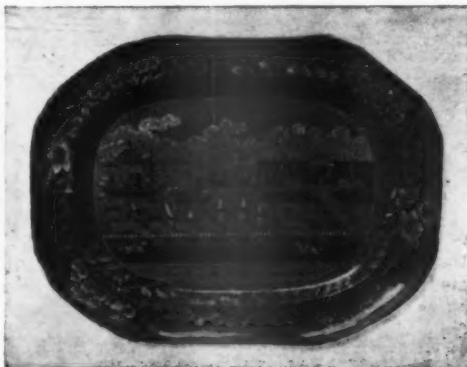
¹¹ Harriet Martineau's "Life in America" and Captain Marryatt's "Diary in America," brought a storm of denial and protest when each appeared.

CELEBRATION OF
THE COMPLETION OF
A RAILROAD.



National pride
stimulated.

A LAFAYETTE
PLATE.



A wider outlook could come only with increased rapidity of communication by such means as the magnetic telegraph, and the demand for that wider outlook had to come in the excitement of the war with Mexico.



OUTLINE VI.

THE EVOLUTION OF THE AMERICAN FRONTIER.

CHAPTER XXI.

A retrospective view of the frontier.

Its influence on the states.

Gradual growth of its means of transportation.

The trader. The squatter. The pioneer farmer. Highways. The village.

Public improvements. Canals and railroads.

This evolution best studied in the middle west.

The region populated by the first foreign immigration.

COMMUNICATION AND THE EXPANSION OF THE FEDERAL UNION.

CHAPTER XXII.

The coming contest between the states and the union.

Influences of government activities.

Three union-making powers given to Congress.

1. The extension of post-roads.

2. The building of military roads.

3. The construction of commercial highways.

THE CUMBERLAND NATIONAL ROAD AND THE ERIE CANAL.

CHAPTER XXIII.

Sales of public lands in Ohio.

Benefits beget demands. The road completed and extended.

President Jackson calls a halt.

Gallatin and internal waterways.

New York builds the Erie canal. Ohio follows the example.

STEAMBOATS AND RAILROADS IN THE MIDDLE WEST.

CHAPTER XXIV.

The steamboat beyond the mountains.

The beginnings of the railroad.

As connections between waterways.

Internal improvements and speculation.

Illinois plans extensive improvements. Madness of other states.

The consolidation of railways.

Lafayette's visit a triumph for western transportation.

National pride causes national sensitiveness.



REVIEW QUESTIONS.

1. How did the federal government steadily increase its influence? 2. What were the Alien and Sedition laws? 3. In whose administration were they passed? 4. Describe the early system of post-roads. 5. When was a uniform rate of postage established? 6. When were the mails first carried on the railroads? 7. How was the absence of good roads felt in the War of 1812? 8. How did the government facilitate commerce on the waterways? 9. How did the necessity for means of communication foster a national spirit? 10. How had the colonies secured their road laws? 11. What methods of road building did the states adopt? 12. What were some of the more important of these routes?

CHAPTER XXI.

1. How has the influence of the frontier been felt upon our national life? 2. Describe the evolution of a settlement. 3. Describe the famous Portage inclined railroad. 4. What European disturbances promoted immigration at this time? 5. How was this viewed in Europe?

CHAPTER XXII.

1. What provision for future road building was made when Ohio was admitted to the Union? 2. What was the first road proposed? 3. How was additional money raised to build it? 4. How are both the evil and good features of paternalism illustrated by this action? 5. Through what other states and by what route was the road extended? 6. Why is a macadam road so called? 7. How was the rivalry of communities shown at this time? 8. What effect had these roads upon commerce? 9. What system of canals was projected? 10. How far carried out? 11. What led to the building of the Erie canal?

CHAPTER XXIII.

1. Describe the beginnings of steam navigation. 2. Some of the early attempts at railroads? 3. Some of the peculiarities of early railroad construction. 4. Some conditions of the speculating mania of 1836-8. 5. How did the United States aid these enterprises? 6. How and when did consolidation begin to take place? 7. Describe the visit of Lafayette. 8. Compare this with the conditions which prevailed in the Revolution.

CHAPTER XXIV.

1. What important offices had Monroe held before he became president? 2. Who originated the Monroe Doctrine? 3. How did the reckoning of an astronomical year cost the United States \$27,000? 4. When and where was the first successful temperance society formed? 5. Who established the "spoils system"? 6. In how many states does the "public domain" still exist? 7. How many acres are still unappropriated and unreserved? 8. To what foreign courts do the United States ministers bear the title of ambassador?

Search Questions.



A READING JOURNEY through FRANCE



Summary of
Preceding
Articles.

[Preparations for and incidents of "The Ocean Voyage," in this Reading Journey, were detailed in the October issue. French money, suggestions for living, and a tour of Paris streets and boulevards were covered in November. Domestic and public architecture in Paris, historically considered, formed the instalment in December. Art Life in Paris, from the student's point of view, was described and sketched in detail in January. The picturesque suburbs of Paris were described and illustrated in February.]

VI. THE PARIS EXPOSITION.

BY THOMAS B. PRESTON.

Artistic tone.

Paris will be at her best next month, when the Exposition opens, like a beautiful woman seeking to make herself more attractive. France has invited her sister nations to assemble in friendly emulation, but so far from suffering by the contrast will, in all that is artistic, bright and gay, in all that adds to the charm of life, only shine the more resplendent

"Velut inter ignes
Luna minores."

Date of opening.

For the whole tone of this Exposition will be artistic rather than industrial, ideal rather than commercial—an aspect more in accord with French character than the business methods and more serious view of life taken by the Anglo-Saxon. The Exposition will open with the spring flowers, just before the month of Floréal in the old republican calendar, and will not close until the chilly blasts of November have strewn upon the Champs-Élysées the last buds from the second crop of horse-chestnut blossoms which make the trees in October seem as though spring were about to come again. April 15 is the date for the opening, it being also Easter Sunday, a great Parisian festival. Three millions of people will attend and many millions more will pass through the grand portal and walk along the majestic avenues of the great fair ere it closes, coming from all quarters of the globe. Few will find their own country unrepresented, either by a special government building or among the exhibits, and all will be seeking to enjoy what France has to offer in the way of spectacle and entertainment. The dome of the capitol at Washington is reflected in the waters of the Seine, through the energy of Mr. Ferdinand W. Peck, the United States commissioner to the Exposition, but Americans generally will not tarry at their own government building, preferring to wander farther and learn what France has to show.

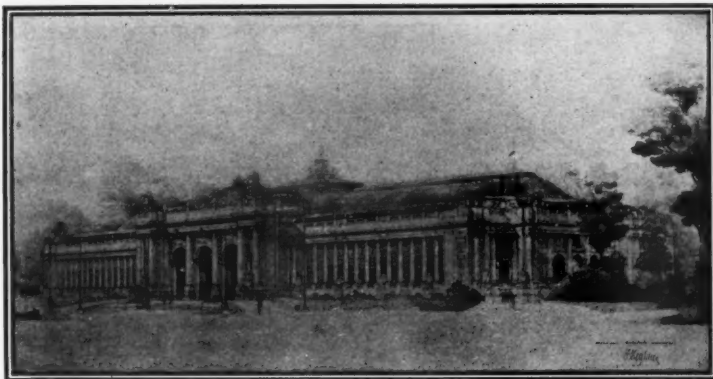
A general view.

In conformity with this idea, therefore, I will attempt rather to give some description of the distinctively French characteristics of the Exposition than to dwell upon America's share in it—which, by the way, will be second only to that of France herself. Suppose one's self poised in the air above the Tuileries gardens, a glance to the west along the Seine would give a bird's-eye view of the whole Exposition proper. Nearest, on the Place de la Concorde, would be the grand entrance, leading to the two beautiful palaces which occupy the greatest part of the Champs-Élysées side, and to the Alexander III. bridge, beyond which on the other bank of the Seine is the Esplanade des Invalides, with its numerous fanciful buildings, the view there limited by the immense gilded dome which hangs over Napoleon's tomb. From this section of the Exposition, the observer, looking along the Seine, would see a narrow strip of both banks occupied by artistic structures until the Pont d'Iéna is reached, where it again broadens out, taking in the Trocadéro gardens on the right and the

Champ de Mars on the left. Progress in the development of expositions is strikingly illustrated by the fact that the whole of the last one, in 1889, was contained in the Champ de Mars, while the third great world's fair, in 1855, was limited to one building,—the old Palais de l'Industrie on the Champs-Élysées, which was torn down to make room for two of the scores of buildings devoted to the present Exposition, the Big and Little Palaces. These are to be permanent, the former as the location of the Salons, the horse show, the dog show, the chrysanthemum and flower show, which occur annually in Paris, while the latter will be used as a sort of Musée Carnavalet.

In a former article published in THE CHAUTAUQUAN for July, 1899, I

Principal buildings.



GRAND PALACE,
CHAMPS-ÉLYSÉES.

endeavored to give an idea of the preparations for the Exposition in the stage at which they had then arrived, and of the projects in contemplation. Some of the plans have since been altered, some minor schemes abandoned, and some locations changed, but the grand outlines remain the same. The site selected is a comparatively new quarter of the city, the oldest building on it being the Hôtel des Invalides, which was begun in 1670. The next is the École Militaire, erected in 1754 by Gabriel, who built the two palaces fronting the Place de la Concorde at the end of the Rue Royale at the same time that he remodeled the arrangement of the Champs-Élysées and the Cours la Reine. Gabriel, too, is said to have first conceived the idea of an avenue opening from the Champs-Élysées a perspective of the Invalides such as has now been carried out by the majestic street between the Big and Little Palaces, prolonged by the Alexander III. bridge,—a street called the Avenue Nicholas II., after the present Czar of Russia, who laid the corner-stone of the approach to the bridge on his visit to Paris in October, 1896. This improvement has been blocked for forty-five years by the Palais de l'Industrie, the third building erected within the limits of the Exposition grounds. It was on the site of the latter building that the French national exhibitions of 1839, 1844, and 1849 were held, preceding all the world's fairs; for the original idea of such displays is French, dating from nearly a hundred years ago. The next structure raised was the Trocadéro, after the Exposition of 1878. The fifth building is the Machinery hall, and the sixth, the Eiffel tower, both erected at the Exposition of 1889, and the only remains of that Exposition today. The former is to be used as the building for agriculture and food products in the coming show.

Site of the
Exposition.

The Exposition proper, as may be seen from a bird's-eye view or from a map, occupies, roughly speaking, two large rectangles, each split in two by the Seine, connected with each other by a strip of ground on either bank. In my former article I described the two palaces of the

Art palace.

INTERIOR OF
GRAND PALACE.

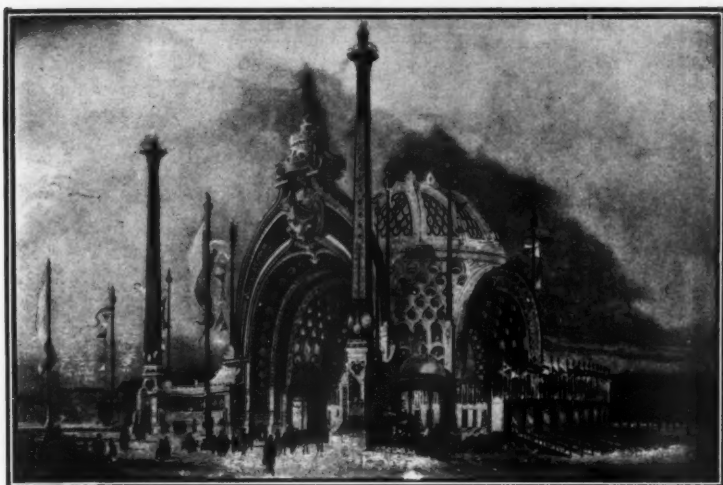


Champs-Élysées, both of which were illustrated in *THE CHAUTAUQUAN*. The little one, nearest the Place de la Concorde, will be used for the retrospective exhibition of French art, loan collections, the finest masterpieces from the Louvre and Luxembourg, and other works of painting and sculpture which can be conveniently brought here. The grandiose proportions of the Big Palace are as well calculated to impress the visitor as for the utilitarian purpose of accommodating immense crowds, while its majestic Ionic columns on the exterior place it among the most beautiful architectural triumphs of this city of beautiful buildings. From the Rond Point on the Champs-Élysées, looking across the river to the dome of the Invalides, the view will be unrivaled by any street in the world, not excepting in Paris itself.

The grand entrance.

One of the principal entrances to the Exposition will be placed here, but the grand entrance or "Porte Monumentale" will be a little further west on the Place de la Concorde, near the bridge leading to the Chamber of Deputies. This consists of a large vaulted arch not unlike the opening of a monster snail-shell, with two tall steel shafts on either end of a crescent-shaped stone coping that flanks the gateway. It is to be in bright colors of Oriental grouping, making the ceiling look like a Turkish rug; at night it is to be lighted by electricity, while dazzling arc lights, like two suns, will shine from the tall masts outside. Exit into the Exposition grounds from this shell-like portal is had by two arches, one looking towards the Seine, the other towards the Champs-Élysées. I must confess that I can see in it neither beauty nor appropriateness. It seems to me gaudy and vulgar as well as lacking in utility and detracting from the other structures. Of what use is a door unless it is a door to something? But here you pass through this colossal, isolated portal and immediately find yourself in the open air again. Ordinary wicket gates in the fence which runs around the grounds would have served the purpose just as well. Fortunately it is only temporary, and will be taken down as soon as the Exposition closes. Each of the great archways has a span of over sixty-six feet and the triangle the structure forms on the ground plan has an area of nearly twenty-nine thousand five hundred square feet. The keystone of the entrance is surmounted with a frontal which bears the arms of the city of Paris, and serves as a pedestal for a colossal statue of liberty. To the right and left are fifty-eight ways, separated by strong iron bars radiating like the sticks of a fan and only wide enough for one

An inartistic
structure.



GRAND ENTRANCE
ON THE PLACE DE LA
CONCORDE.

person. The crowd will be gradually sucked into these passages and proceed in fifty-eight Indian files past the ticket-collectors who will be seated in little boxes. It is calculated that an average of seventeen persons a minute can be passed on each of the ways, which will make the total capacity of the portal 986 per minute or nearly sixty thousand an hour. This would not be nearly enough for the total number of visitors expected, but as there are a score of entrances in all parts of the Exposition, no difficulty is anticipated on that head.

Capacity of the
grand portal.

A good route to follow after having visited the art palaces and the Alexander III. bridge would be along the right bank of the Seine towards the Trocadéro. At the Pont des Invalides the Pavilion of the City of Paris is to be seen. It was erected by M. Gragny, the city architect. Here will be placed the special exhibits of the city of Paris, including many historical relics temporarily removed from the public museums. Near here also is the "Rue de Paris," where the administration has grouped the attractions more essentially Parisian in their nature. On the Cours la Reine are the *guignols*, or Punch and Judy shows, the favorite spectacle of the nursemaids and children who frequent the Champs-Élysées on sunny afternoons, familiar to all who have spent any length of time in Paris. Similar to these are the *tableaux vivants*, the shadow pictures, the smoke pictures and the *marionettes*, the latter worked by means of invisible wires and given a most wonderful resemblance to life, the hidden operators simulating the voices of the characters represented. Then there is a miraculous tower in which strange optical delusions are created by a series of mirrors. An aquarium filled with queer fish from every ocean, lake and river, adjoins the Pont des Invalides. Here divers will be seen at work, submarine volcanoes will be in eruption, and a perfect illusion will be given of all that is to be found in the waters under the earth.

Parisian exhibits.

Near by is the Palace of Dancing, the only theater within the Exposition grounds. An attempt is to be made to show by object-lessons the history of dancing in all lands and ages, from ancient Egypt and Greece down to the present day. The dances will be linked together in a sort of pantomime and several performances will be given daily. The best *danseuses* of Europe have been engaged and the ballet and orchestra will be exceptionally fine. Judging from former expositions, this is likely to prove one of the great attractions. It was at the Exposition of 1889 that a great furor was created by the celebrated *danse du ventre*, then

Palace of Dancing.

brought for the first time from Egypt, a dance according to American ideas certainly not graceful, certainly indecent. The promoters of the present enterprise promise to give a spectacle of less doubtful taste and of really historic and ethnographic interest. The building will have a double façade, one on the Rue de Paris and the other on the Seine, so that it can be reached either by land or water.

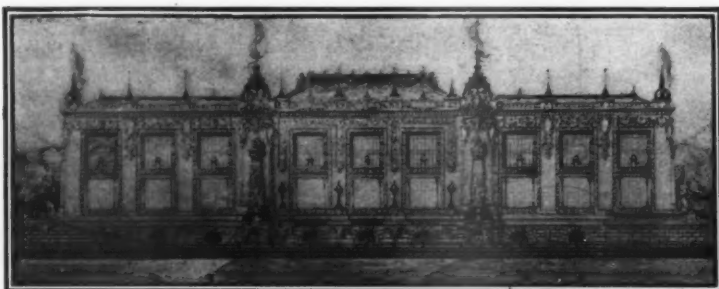
Horticulture and
Arboriculture.

Also bordering on the Seine is the building of horticulture and arboriculture. No city in the world carries its care for trees and plants to such an extent as does Paris. The matter forms an important department of the city government and immense nurseries and greenhouses near the Bois de Boulogne are kept up at great expense for renewing the supply of the city parks and streets. The best specimens of the gardener's art will be brought for exhibition to this building, which will be appropriately surrounded by beautiful flower beds, while the tropical and more tender plants will be kept in specially constructed greenhouses.

The Palais des
Congrès.

Next to this building, and just before we reach the Alma bridge, is the Palais des Congrès et Economie Sociale, set apart for the meetings of all the great world's congresses which are to be held during the continuance of the Exposition. It is light, airy and admirably situated, just before the bend in the river, the cool breezes from which will subdue the summer heat and allay any unusual warmth of discussion. Its erection, even, is in keeping with the ideas of many social economists, for it has been built entirely by workmen's coöperative societies. For this reason, too, it is wholly of wood, because no coöperative society exists in France for the manufacture of structural iron. It is in Louis XVI. style, and is 328 feet long. The first floor is reserved for the congresses, and contains five halls, the largest of which will hold eight hundred persons. These rooms are connected with a wide corridor running the whole length

BUILDING OF
SOCIAL ECONOMY
WHERE CONGRESSES
WILL BE HELD.



of the building parallel with the Seine. Some idea of the magnitude of this branch of the Exposition may be had from the fact that over one hundred and ten congresses have been arranged for. Some, on account of the large number of members, will be held not here but in one of the large buildings of the city outside of the Exposition grounds. Such will be the case with the medical congress, which will be in session three weeks and will be attended by over seven thousand delegates. The lower floor of the building will be occupied by social economy exhibits, charts and appliances.

Old Paris.

Crossing the Place de l'Alma we next meet the "Vieux Paris," which we enter by an ancient city gate, and find ourselves at once transported to medieval Paris, with its quaint and crooked streets, houses with the upper stories projecting over the lower, turrets and balconies, churches and belfries. In all the buildings there will be young men and women in antique costume, ready to sell souvenirs of Paris and the Exposition for moderate sums, while restaurants and cafés abound, where modern food and drink will be served in ancient wares. The whole Exposition, by the

way, will be plentifully provided with restaurants and every accommodation, so that once within the grounds, the visitor can get all his meals there and will be under no necessity of returning to his hotel. Fêtes of medieval Europe will be reproduced in miniature in Old Paris and historic processions, cavalcades, and tourneys will take place.

Many restaurants.

The visitor, still continuing along the Seine, will next pass on his left a temporary foot-bridge giving access to the opposite bank, and then the exhibit of pleasure boats, where moorings have been placed in the river for the latest models of small yachts and sailboats.

The next point of interest is the Trocadéro gardens, where are grouped all the exhibits of the French colonies and protectorates. Algeria and the African colonies occupy the lower part of the slope, while nearer the mammoth building are Tonquin, Indo-China and New Caledonia, with the French Congo in one corner at the top. The colonies of foreign nations are also placed here for purposes of comparison. The Exposition here runs over its own limits and takes possession of some of the neighboring squares, Madagascar having the place of honor, the circle on the Place du Trocadéro. The Spanish colonies on the coast of Morocco are also pushed outside on the Rue le Notre, near the river. British India is opposite, just inside the grounds. This section will be one of the most picturesque in the Exposition,—Chinese pagodas, Indian bungalows, Arab tents and African huts being packed in a wonderfully small space, all served by inhabitants of the countries represented. The Trocadéro itself will remain devoted to its present uses. One of the largest concert halls in the world, seating 4,900 people, occupies the basement, while the upper stories contain museums of ethnography, showing the inhabitants of many countries in native dress, and the picturesque peasant costumes of the French provinces. One view should not be missed: it is the outlook from the center of the wide, open corridor of the Trocadéro, across the Pont d'Iéna, between the supports of the Eiffel tower, towards the Water Palace at the end of the Champ de Mars. It was beautiful before a stone of the present buildings was laid. After the opening of the Exposition it will be flanked by the fantastic colonial buildings, the populous bridge and the river covered with Venetian gondolas in the nearer foreground, with artistic structures on either hand beyond. The whole will be terminated by water rising in sheaves of silver, falling in showers of gold,



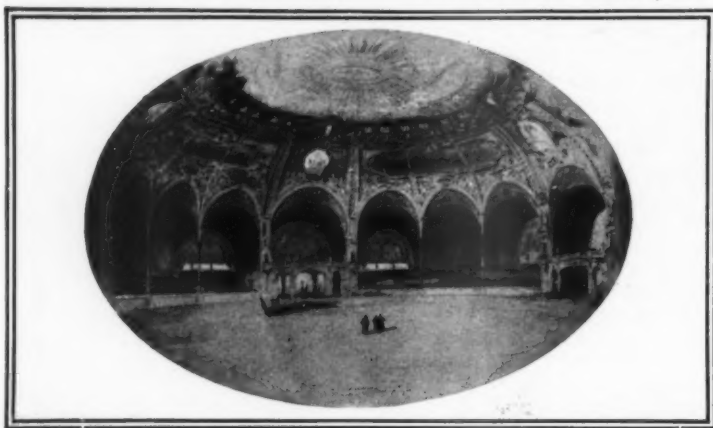
OLD PARIS.
(Reproduced in miniature
on the right bank of
the Seine.)

A fine view.

Transvaal gold
mine.

assembled into one grand cascade larger than that at St. Cloud, at night illuminated by brilliant electric lights of varying colors, and the spectacle will be one probably never before equaled. A cable road will encircle the Trocadéro gardens for the convenience of visitors, a fact which will be appreciated by those who know how steep is the incline from the river to the summit of the hill. Underground is a model mine where all the appliances for extracting subterranean treasures will be shown in action. Here the Transvaal, in spite of the war, has a gallery five hundred yards long filled with ore, in which real Kaffir miners will be at work, and at the exit a stamp, battery and complete apparatus for crushing and amalgamating the metal. The principal building of the Transvaal is in the Avenue d'Iéna, and will contain specimens of the country's chief products.

INTERIOR OF
HALL OF FÊTES.



There is also to be a Boer farm and a trek cart. Visitors will cross Asia in the Siberian section, where a moving panorama will convey the illusion of being borne along the trans-Siberian railroad.

The Cosmorama.

Crossing the Seine by the Pont d'Iéna, let us proceed to the right around the Champ de Mars, first visiting the river banks. Here is the building devoted to forestry, hunting, fishing, and the gathering of fruit, and beyond it the Globe Céleste, or cosmorama, constructed by M. Galeron. It is a gigantic sphere, 166 feet in diameter, representing the starry heavens, to be looked at from the interior by spectators placed on a little globe, forty feet in diameter, turning on its axis and representing the earth. It will accommodate 136 people at a time, who will be lifted into the interior of the small sphere by elevators, and will place themselves at different latitudes before round windows cut in the surface. Here they will see the principal phenomena depending upon the earth's rotation; such as the rising and setting of the sun, moon and stars and principal planets, occultations, etc. Beneath will be stereoscopic panorama of a tour round the world, giving a most interesting lesson in geography up to date.

Eiffel tower.

Retracing one's steps a little, the Eiffel tower is reached. It has been a landmark so long that it has ceased to attract attention at ordinary times, and barely pays the expenses of running the elevators that lift the spectator 984 feet above the ground and give him a fine bird's-eye view of Paris. Those who feel nervous about ascending such a structure, by the way, may have a view nearly as good from the church of the Sacré Cœur at Montmartre, an immense building on a high hill in the northern part of the city, which dominates all Paris. The Eiffel tower, however, is expected to pay well this year. The price of trips to the top will be decreased, they will be more frequent, and more

space will be made for the public on the different floors by the removal of unnecessary offices. At night it will form a beautiful feature of the Champ de Mars, every line of the structure being picked out in brilliant light. At its foot is the Woman's building for exhibits of distinctively woman's work.

On the right of the Eiffel tower is the Palace of Optics, where the chief attraction will be what is called "La Lune à un Mètre." It is a gigantic telescope, the largest ever made, being 185 feet long. Each of its two object glasses will be nearly four feet in diameter, and they will weigh about four hundred and fifty pounds apiece. The telescope cost \$280,000 and has a magnifying power of six thousand times. Previous to this time, no telescope has magnified an object more than four thousand times. It will bring the moon to an apparent distance of about forty miles. The steel tube of the telescope is stationary, held on stout iron piers, and the object glasses are mounted on a revolving carriage, one being used for photographic purposes and the other for projecting images on a screen. This is about seventy-five feet square and is hung on a stage like a curtain. The sun, moon, planets, fixed stars and nebulae will be reflected on this screen on a scale never before seen. The image of the moon will have a diameter of about nine feet, and that of Mars about one foot. Apart from its attraction as a spectacle, permitting a couple of thousand people to look through a telescope at the same time, the instrument will have an important scientific value, and great results are expected from it by the observatory, which has appointed a special staff of astronomers to take charge of it and conduct observations.

A gigantic telescope.



VIEW OF THE SEINE.

The western side of the Champ de Mars is occupied by buildings devoted to education and instruction, literature, science and art, civil engineering and transportation, and chemical industries. All the practical demonstrations of transportation, however, will take place at an annex in the Bois de Vincennes, where special tracks have been laid for steam cars, electric engines and tramways, roads for testing automobiles and other vehicles, bicycle paths—everything connected with locomotion, except one very important appliance. This is a moving sidewalk which will transport visitors around the Esplanade des Invalides and Champ de Mars sections. It runs along the western edge of each of these rectangles, passes back of the buildings bordering the Seine and connects the further end of the Champ de Mars with the Place des Invalides, making the Avenue de la Motte Picquet through which it passes look like a section of Sixth avenue, New York, the structure on which it is placed being very similar to the elevated road there. The platform is triple, the first

The moving sidewalk.

section on which one steps being stationary, the second one moving at a rate of two and one-half miles an hour, and the third at a rate of five miles. The line is continuous and nine miles long. It will take about eight minutes to go from the Place des Invalides to the Champ de Mars, and about twenty minutes to pass from one section to the other along the Seine,—just about the same time as an ordinary cab, but it will be much cheaper and more convenient, as it will be within the Exposition grounds.

Palace of
Electricity.

Next to the building devoted to chemical industries will be the Palace of Electricity, forming the background of the Water Palace. The connection between the two buildings is utilitarian as well as artistic. As much as 12,000 horse power is required for the Exposition. To obtain this, 3,200 gallons of water per second are needed; 800 are to be brought from Villejuif, about five miles away, and 2,400 are pumped from the Seine near by. In the wings of the Electricity building, between it and Agricultural hall, which forms the rear of the Champ de Mars, are placed the great machines which generate the electricity for the Exposition.



WOMAN'S
BUILDING.

After looking at the agricultural and food products, let us return towards the Seine, passing in succession the buildings of mechanics, of thread and cloths, and of mines and metallurgy, all of which will be of minor interest to the general visitor. Next comes the Palais du Costume, giving a history of costume, fe-

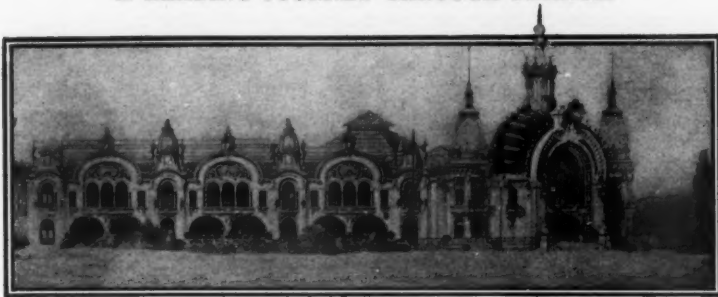
Palais du Costume.

male figures being shown dressed in the prevailing fashionable styles from the most ancient times to the present day. This was the idea of the famous dressmaker Félix. Next to this will be the panorama of M. Louis Dumoulin, giving a tour of the world, accompanied by scenes and dances of the various countries.

Foreign government
buildings.

Leaving the Champ de Mars and returning along the left bank of the Seine, we pass the Merchant Marine building, the Navy and Army building, and the Mexican building, behind which is one devoted to the accommodation of the Press. Then comes the Pont de l'Alma and from there to the Pont des Invalides are the foreign government buildings in the following order: Servia, Greece, Sweden, Monaco, Spain, Germany, Norway, Belgium, England, Hungary, Bosnia, Herzegovina, Austria, the United States, Turkey and Italy. Those of other governments are scattered about wherever they can find a lodging, some even outside the Exposition grounds, and Russia is given an exceptionally conspicuous place on the Champs-Élysées side of the river near the Grand Palace. After passing the pont, we come to the Esplanade des Invalides, where the exhibits are purely industrial and technical. The western side of the esplanade is given up to foreign exhibits and the eastern half to French industries connected with the interior decoration of houses and household furniture, and to national manufactures, such as the Gobelins tapestry and Sèvres china ware. Visitors need not fear to bring their cameras to take photographs of general views wherever they please. Both professionals and amateurs will be granted this privilege on payment of a nominal fee of fifty centimes per apparatus. To photograph private

Industrial exhibits.

EDUCATIONAL
BUILDING.

exhibits, the permission of the owners will have to be first obtained.

This finishes the Exposition proper, but there is much else to interest the visitor. The Bois de Vincennes annex alone is larger than the entire Exposition space within the city walls. And besides that, there is the still larger exposition of this beautiful city of Paris itself, every street a picture, every citizen a character study.

Danseuses (dahn-sers. Omit r sound). *Eplanade*, a level open space. *Félix* (fay-leeks). *Guignols* (gheen-yol). *M. Gragny* (mon-s'yer graveenyea). *M. Louis Dumoulin* (mon-s'yer doo-moo-lan). *Palais des Congrès et Economie Sociale* (pahlay day kon-greh a-kon-o-mee sohs-yal). *Tableaux vivants* (tah-blohs vee-vau). *Tonquin* (ton-keen). *Glossary.*

1. When will the Paris Exposition open? 2. Where are the buildings located? 3. Which of them will be permanent and for what purposes used? 4. Why is the street Nicholas II. so called? 5. What events are associated with the Palais de l'Industrie? 6. What buildings of the Exposition of 1889 still remain? 7. How will the various colonies of France and of other nations be arranged and represented? 8. What opportunities will be given for a glimpse of Old Paris? 9. What results are expected from the great telescope now being constructed? 10. What practical results will be achieved by the moving sidewalk? 11. What will be the nature of the Globe Celeste? 12. What exhibits are placed in the Bois de Vincennes?

Review Questions.

1. What is the origin of the Marseillaise? 2. What are the most famous of the great international expositions? Where held and when? 3. What are the arms of the city of Paris? 4. What victory is commemorated by the Pont d'Iéna? 5. Where is New Caledonia? 6. When and how did Algeria become a dependency of France? 7. When and how Tonquin? 8. The French Congo? 9. How did the Trocadéro get its name? 10. What is the significance of the names Quai de la Conférence and Pont de l'Alma? 11. How recently did the French fleur de lis form part of the royal standard of Great Britain? 12. What were the names of the months of the French republican calendar?

Search Questions.

The interest which readers of THE CHAUTAUQUAN are taking in the Reading Journey Through France has expressed itself in calls for large numbers of the map of Paris furnished by the Chautauqua Office for twenty-five cents. The map is provided with a very complete index of streets, but as it is difficult to find in English any very satisfactory key to the pronunciation of their names, we publish the following list of about two hundred streets and public buildings with which, either by reason of name or location, the student should become familiar.

A map of Paris.

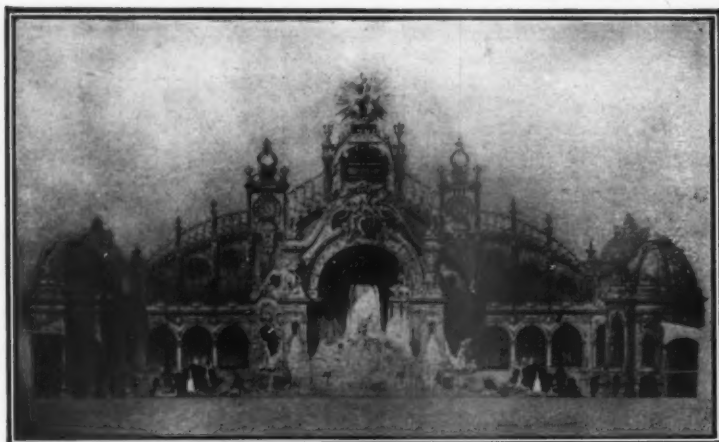
It is quite impossible to indicate all French intonations in English terms. But a careful study of the following pronunciation table will yield very satisfactory results, especially if the circle can secure the help of a teacher or student of the French language. The use of the small capital N indicates the French nasal sound. In some cases where the correct sound of e can only be indicated by following it with an r, the student is reminded that the r itself should be omitted, or at the most, touched upon very lightly.

Alphonse Daudet
(alfons doday)
Alsace Lorraine
(alzas lorraine)
Amélie
(a-may-lee)
des Anglais
(day zanglay)
d'Angoulême
(dan-goo-lehm)
Arc de Triomphe
(ark de treeonf)
Arc de l'Etoile
(ark de lay-twahl)

Archives Nationales
(arsheev nah-seonal)
d'Argenteuil
(dar-zhan-ter! Omit r sound)
Avenue de l'Alma
(ahv-nu de lalma)
Avenue d'Antin
(ahv-nu dahn-tan)
Barye
(bah-ree)
Bastien Lepage
(bas-tian lepahzh)
Bastille
(basteel)

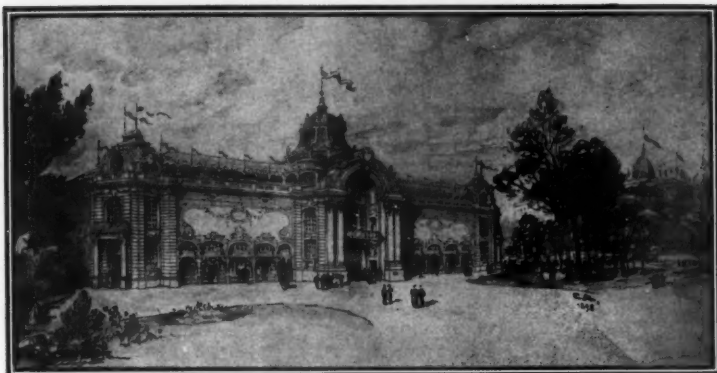
Batignolles
(bahtinyole)
Bayard
(bah-yar)
Beauharnais
(bo-ahr-nay)
Beaumarçais
(bo-mar-shay)
Beaurepaire
(bo-repair)
Beaux Arts
(bo-zahr)
Béranger
(bay-ran-zhay)

Pronunciation.

PALACE OF
ELECTRICITY.

Pronunciation.

Bibliothèque Nationale (beeb-leo-tek-nah-seonal)	Châlons (shah-lon)	Cyrano de Bergerac (sihrah-no de bear-zhrahk)
Billancourt (beel-yân-coor)	Champ de Mars (shaun-de-mars)	Daguerre (dah-gehr)
des Blancs Manteaux (day blan manto)	Champollion (shaun-po-leon)	Dampierre (dan-pyair)
Boileau (bwah-lo)	Champs-Élysées (shaun-zay-lee-zay)	Daubigny (dough-been-yeo)
Bois de Boulogne (bwah de boo-loyne)	Chantilly (shaun-tee-yeo)	Dauphine (dough-foenay)
Boissy d'Anglas (bwahasy danglah)	Chapelle (shah-pelle)	Descartes (day-cart)
Bon Marché (bon marashay)	Chapu (shap-ew)	Didier (deed-yea)
Bonne Nouvelle (bon noovelle)	de la Charbonniere (de la shar-bon-yair)	Dijon (dee-jon)
Bordeaux (bor-do)	Charcot (shar-co)	Domremy (don-ray-mee)
Bosquet (bos-kay)	Chartreux (shar-trer. Omit sound of final r)	Drouot (droo-o)
Bossuet (bos-sooay)	Châteaubriand (shah-to-bree-an)	Duguesclin (du-ges-klan)
Bou langer (boo-lan-zhay)	Chaussée d'Antin (show-say dahntan)	École Militaire (acohl meeleeaire)
Boulevard du Temple (bool-var du tahmpl)	Chauvin (show-van)	École des Beaux-Arts (acohl day bo-zahr)
Bourdonnais (boor-do-nay)	Chemin de Fer (shman de fair)	Egalité (a-gahl-ectay)
Bourse (boorce)	Cherche Midi (shairah meedee)	Eglise (a-gleez)
Bruxelles (brook-aelle)	Cherubini (kay-rew-beenee)	Tour Eiffel (toor i-fel)
Buttes Chaumont (buwt-shomon)	Cheval Blanc (shvahl blan)	des Enfants Rouges (day-zan-fan-roozh)
Cambrai (kan-bray)	Choiseul (shwa-zerl. Omit r sound)	d'Enghien (dan-gee-an)
des Capucines (day kap-u-seen)	Choisy (shwa-zy)	Espérance (es-pay-rauns)
Carrousel (ka-roo-zel)	Cimetière (sim-tyair)	des États Unis (day zay-tahs u-nee)
Caserne de la Cité (kazairne de la seetay)	Clichy (klee-shee)	Eugène Delacroix (eujen de-la-krwa)
Casimir-Périer (kaz-i-meer-pay-re-ay)	Coligny (ko-leen-yeo)	Faubourg du Temple (fo-boor du tahmpl)
Castiglione (kas-tig-le-own)	Colonne de Juillet (koh-lon de zhwee-yeh)	Fille du Calvaire (feey du kalvaire)
Cévennes (say-ven)	Colbert (kohl-bear)	de Flandre (de flandr)
Chablis (shah-blee)	Cours la Reine (koor la rain)	Fontaine au Roi (fon-tain o rwah)

PALACE OF
COSTUME.

Fontenoy (fon-inwah)	des Italiens (day zee-tahl-ian)	Menard (men-ahr)
Froycinet (fray-seen-eh)	d'Ivry (deev-ree)	Monceau (mon-so)
Froissart (frwah-sar)	d'Issy (dee-see)	Montmartre (mon-martr)
Galliard (gayar)	Jardin d'Acclimatation (zhar-dan dak le-ma-tat-seon)	Montparnasse (mon-par-nass)
Gare de l'Est (gar de lest)	Jardin des Plantes (zhar-dan day plahnt)	Nantes (nant)
Gare de Lyon (gar de leon)	Jeanne d'Arc (zhahn dark)	Nice (neece)
Gare du Nord (gar du nor)	Julienne (zhu-lee-yen)	Notre Dame d'Auteuil (notr dahm do-terl)
Gare d'Orleans (gar dor-lay-an)	Kléber (klay-bear)	Olivier de Serres (o-leev-yea de-sehr)
Gare Saint Lazare (gar san lazahr)	de Labourdonnaix (de la-boor-donay)	de la Paix (de la pay)
Gare de Sceaux (gar de so)	Lac Inferieur (lak an-fay-ree-ur)	Palais Bourbon (pahlay boorbon)
Gentilly (zhan-tee-ye)	La Croix (la krwah)	Palais de Justice (pahlay de-zhoos-teece)
Gironde (zhe-rond)	La Motte Piquet (la mot pee-kay)	Père Lachaise (pair la-chaise)
Gobelins (gob-lan)	Languedoc (lahng-dok)	Place de l'Hotel de Ville (plahs de lotel de-veel)
Grange aux belles (granj o belle)	LaRoche foucauld (la-rosh-foo-ko)	Place de la Nation (plahs de la nah-seon)
Grenelle (greh-nell)	Liancourt (lee-an-koor)	Place de l'Opera (plahs de lopera)
Gustave Dore (gustahr doray)	Luxembourg (looks-an-boor)	Poissoniere (pwah-son-yaire)
Gustave Flaubert (gustahr flowbear)	Madeleine (mahde-lain)	Poitiers (pwah-tyea)
Halevy (a-lay-vee)	Maison (may-zon)	Pont d'Arcole (pon darkohl)
Halles Centrales (hahl san-tral)	Malesherbes (mal-zehrb)	Pont des Arts (pon day zahr)
Hausmann (ohs-man)	Malmaisons (mal-may-zon)	Pont d'Austerlitz (pon dos-tair-lits)
Henri-Quatre (anree-katr)	Mansart (man-sahr)	Pont de Bercy (pon de bear-see)
Hôpital St. Louis (o-pit-al san louis)	Marais (mah-ray)	Pont au Change (pon to shanzh)
Hôtel Dieu (o-tel d'yer Omit r sound)	Marché aux Bestiaux (mar-ahay o bee-tyo)	Pont d'Iena (pon dyea-na)
Hôtel de Ville (o-tel de-veel)	Mariniers (mar-eeen-yea)	Pont Nef (pon nef. Omit r sound)
Institut Pasteur (ans-tih-tu pas-ter)	Marivaux (mah-ree-vo)	Préfecture de la Seine (pray-fek-ture de la sane)
des Invalides (day zan-val-ee)	Meissonier (may-son-yea)	Quai d'Anjou (kay dan-zhoo)

Pronunciation.

Pronunciation.	Quai de la Conference (kay de la kōN-fay-rauNa)	Saint Amand (saN taman)	Soufflot (soo-flow)
	Quai Debilly (kay de bee-yee)	Saint Cloud (saN kloō)	Thibaud (tee-bo)
	Quai aux Fleurs (kay o fler)	Saint Denis (saN denee)	Tiers (tyair)
	Quai de l'Horloge (kay de lor-lozhe)	Saint Eustache (saN teus-tashe)	Trocadéro (tro-kah-day-ro)
	Quai d'Orsay (kay dor-say)	Saint Germain l'Auxerrois (saN zher-man loke-ser-wah)	Tuileries (tweel-er-ies)
	Quai de Passy (kay de passy)	Saint Honoré (saN tono-ray)	Turgot (toor-go)
	Quatre Septembre (katr sep-tahmbr)	Saint Jacques (saN zhakk)	Vendôme (vahN-dome)
	Rambouillet (raN-boo-yea)	Saint Martin (saN mar-tan)	Verdun (vair-dun)
	Regnaud (ray-nyo)	Saint Michel (saN mee-shel)	Versailles (vair-sahye)
	Regnier (rain-yea)	Saint Ouen (saN too-ahn)	Villejuif (veel-zhweef)
	Rond Point (roN pwan)	Saint Pierre (saN pyair)	Vincennes (vaN-sen)
	Rouget de l'Isle (roo-zhay de-leel)	Saint Roch (saN rok)	Wagram (vah-gram)
	Sacré Coeur (sak-ray cur)	Sentier (saN tyea)	Yvart (ee-var)

CRITICAL STUDIES IN AMERICAN LITERATURE.*

III. AN ESSAY: EMERSON'S "SELF-RELIANCE."

BY PROF. FRED LEWIS PATTEE.

(Pennsylvania State College.)

General divisions
of prose.

The laws which govern the form and the classification of poetry are well defined and comprehensive; they have been elaborated and perfected ever since the time of Aristotle, but prose writing in its present form is of comparatively recent origin, and the laws governing it are as yet somewhat vague. It is impossible to classify with confidence all prose productions. In general, we may divide them into four groups: description, which has to do with the element of space, and which aims to reproduce in the reader's imagination some scene or object or person; narration, which deals with the element of time, and which aims to represent in true order some event or series of events; exposition, which aims to explain and make clear some general term or idea; and argumentation, which seeks to establish the truth or the falsity of propositions. Seldom, however, are these forms found uncombined. The modern novel is usually a blending together of description and narration; historical composition generally makes use of exposition, narration and description; an essay of Macaulay's may contain all four varieties combined in nearly equal proportions. The prose writer has perfect freedom to choose and mix as he will and as a result his work often makes classification extremely difficult.

Exposition and its
classification.

Of all these prose forms the one most free from rules and the one, perhaps, most in use is exposition. All text-books and works of science and philosophy, all reviews, political and social studies, criticisms, editorials, magazine articles, tracts and treatises are expository. Whenever the writer makes generalizations, whenever he attempts to render simple some vague or abstract subject, whenever he explains in clear terms some question of popular interest, he makes an exposition. No perfectly satisfactory subdivision of exposition into its different varieties has ever been accomplished. Some would divide it into treatises and essays; others would make many more subdivisions. All critics, however, agree that

*No. I. Longfellow's "Evangeline," by Fred. L. Pattee, appeared in January.

No. II. Hawthorne's "Marble Faun," by Albert H. Smyth, appeared in February.

the essay is a very important division, though they differ widely when they attempt to define its exact limits. The essays of Bacon and Macaulay, of Addison and Carlyle, are indeed hard to group under one definition. In a loose, popular sense, all short expositions are essays; in a more precise and absolute sense no exposition is an essay that does not conform to the type evolved by Bacon.

The essay.

The father of the essay was Montaigne, the French contemporary of Shakespeare and Bacon. His essays are the observations and reflections of an exceedingly brilliant man, poured out almost spontaneously and with little system. They are a series of brilliant epigrams and scattered observations upon human life and society. Bacon wrote his essays after reading Montaigne. As he defined them they are "brief notes set down significantly;" they are the published note-books of a philosopher who talks from a wide experience of human life. With both these writers the essay was literally an *essay*,—a trial, a first attempt, a hasty jotting down of first thoughts and fancies without much connection. Some of Bacon's essays, notably the first ten, are well-nigh as disjointed as are the proverbs of Solomon. The only thread that binds the sentences into a unity is the fact that all the sayings in a given essay are connected more or less closely with a given subject. Systematic and minute treatment was not for a moment contemplated. This form is the primitive type of the essay, the essay proper. It is usually designated as the personal essay.

Bacon.

The primitive or personal essay.

Later writers greatly modified this form. The essay became more and more systematic until it was not an essay at all in a strict etymological sense. Addison styled his elegant and finished editorials for *The Spectator* essays. With him and his followers the form became a vehicle for graceful moralizings, for delicate humor and pathos, for elaborated sentiment. This is the second type of the essay, the literary or the popular type. It is an artificial form; it depends as much upon its manner as upon its matter. It is now comparatively rare. In America, Irving, Donald G. Mitchell, and George William Curtis have used it with charming effect. It is a type of literature that is uniformly pleasing; its outlines are vague and misty; the atmosphere about it is mellow and soft; its voice is ever mild and soothing.

The literary essay.

Irving, Mitchell, Curtis.

During the early years of the present century the essay took yet another form. Under the leadership of Jeffrey, and Christopher North, and Macaulay, an era of reviews began. The essay became the leading form of literary expression. It was a complicated affair; it might include all varieties of literary expression. Its province was purely intellectual. It aimed to inform the public on "some living topic, political or social, in the light of the very latest ideas." This form of the essay has steadily increased in popularity during the century until now it fills our magazines and reviews, and every writer, no matter what his field, must at one time or another make an attempt at it. Matthew Arnold, Lowell, Whipple, Dowden, Godkin, and very many others have done conspicuous work with this form of the essay. Magazines like the *North American Review*, *The Forum*, the *Nineteenth Century*, *The Contemporary Review*, and the *Edinburgh Review*, contain little save this form of literature, and the editorials of our best newspapers and the literary criticisms and reviews for which our era is noted all belong to this class.

The didactic or scholarly essay.

Arnold, Lowell, Whipple.

This classification of the essay, although somewhat loose and in many ways unsatisfactory, is, perhaps, from a practical point of view, the best possible. All essays may be gathered in a rough way into one or another of these groups.

The essay of the first, or Baconian type, in reality the only true essay, is an extremely lawless and rambling product. According to John Morley the office of the essay in all its forms is "merely to open questions, to indicate points, to suggest cases, to sketch outlines," but in the personal

Lawless nature of the personal essay.

essay the writer may obey his own will. His work may be almost devoid of unity or plan. Within the broad bounds of his theme he is expected to keep, but within these limits he knows no law. If his subject be exceedingly broad, like "Experience" or "Character" or "Nature," he has almost unlimited freedom. It is like the conversation of a gifted friend on things in general. The writer strays "hither and thither like a bird to find material for its nest or a bee to get honey for its comb."

The personal essay emphasizes the author.

In the personal essay our chief thought is of the author and his message. He is constantly in view. His personality, his peculiar views, his experience, his foibles, his wisdom and philosophy. His individuality is stamped on every page, on every line. No two essayists of this class can be compared in style and method; each is a law unto himself. To succeed with this type the writer must be a man of marked personality, of brilliant intellect, of forceful character, of great originality. He must be above all an observer and a thinker,—in short, a man of genius, a master whose message is worthy of our utmost care. Essayists of this class are, therefore, rare. England has produced several of the first rank since Bacon,—Lamb, De Quincey, Thackeray, Carlyle; America has produced but one,—Emerson.

Lamb, De Quincey, Carlyle.

With this conception of the personal essay we are prepared to find Emerson dealing almost wholly with problems of human life and society. We are not surprised to find him somewhat lawless in his methods; and very peculiar and original in his style and message.

To the average reader who finds his chief delight in the monthly magazines Emerson is by no means easy reading. He is a thinker and a philosopher; his work is full of metaphysics; is disjointed and often incoherent; he takes no pains to make his message obvious to the general reader. In moments of inspiration he forgets his reader altogether; he steps from peak to peak with strides that none but a giant can follow and he who would gain the message must toil painfully and long through the intervening valleys. But the message is worth the work. Emerson opens new vistas at every step. Thousands of young Americans have had their first real insight into the world of thought while reading his essays. He is stimulating and suggestive; he throws the reader upon his own resources; he has a message of helpfulness and good cheer that no young life can afford to be without. Any one can read Emerson, even his most obscure essays, if he will. Attention is necessary, consecutive application, an ability to hold the mind to a focus for a length of time. The untrained mind is a wandering mind. It may be hard at first to fix the attention, but there is no better way to gain mental power than to hold oneself steadily to a mental task. The reward is great. He who will apply himself honestly, who will resolve to read the essays not once superficially with a wandering mind, but ten times with fixed attention and with pen in hand, will find a new world of which he never dreamed.)

Emerson.

"Self-Reliance."

I have chosen the essay "Self-Reliance" chiefly because of its helpful message to young thinkers. While it gives only one radius to the circle of Emerson's philosophy, while it furnishes but a single glimpse at the great thinker's style and methods, it nevertheless, more than almost any other of his essays, is a typical product.

The student should begin his study by reading the essay through sentence by sentence, lingering on each until it has yielded at least a part of its meaning. Place an interrogation point opposite each sentence which after careful thought is not perfectly clear to you. In the same way read the essay through again, reducing, if possible, the number of interrogation points. You are now ready to study the piece in detail.

Preliminary study.

It is almost an axiom of literary criticism that to get at the heart of a piece of literature one must write as he reads. The essay should be viewed first as a whole. Can you after several readings reproduce in your mind its main outlines? Probably not. The essay doubtless seems

like a bundle of loose thoughts that have a constant tendency to repel each other and scatter rather than combine into a unity. Careless readers of the essays bear away only a few catchwords and half-digested epigrams. The only remedy for such reading is the careful preparation of abstracts and outlines. The essay has no elaborate plan; it has no studied introduction, no systematic and artificial ordering of material, and no carefully arranged ending. It is more like the spontaneous conversation of a brilliant thinker. Yet the essay is not a mere chaos of detached aphorisms. Even the most desultory conversation must follow some order; it must make progress,—otherwise it will be impossible to grasp it as a whole. The outline for “Self-Reliance” will be somewhat as follows:

The outline.

- A. Be original, not conventional. Trust thyself. 1-5.*
- B. Obstacles in the way of self-reliance:
 1. Conformity. 6-11.
 2. Consistency. 12-17.
 3. Ignorance of self. 18.
 4. False estimates of men. 19, 20.
- C. The reasons for self-trust:
 1. The trustee is worthy, for the self is an emanation from the divine spirit. 21-24.
 2. The self or soul is an active, original agent, self-sufficing and therefore self-relying. 25-29.
- D. Self-trust is attained by following the truth though it requires almost godlike strength to do it. 30-32.
- E. The great need of self-reliance at the present time. 33, 34.
- F. An increase of self-reliance would work a revolution in
 1. Religion. 36-38.
 2. Motives for travel. 39-41.
 3. Intellectual honesty. 42, 43.
 4. The spirit of society. 44-50.

It is not often that one can make so systematic a plan of an essay of Emerson's. As he grew older he became more and more fragmentary and discursive, until his last essays are mere collections of sentences from his note-books. Study the essay in connection with this outline until you see it as a whole. Enlarge this outline and make abstracts of the principal parts.

Make a study now of the parts that seem obscure. What proportion of the essay is unintelligible to you? Doubtless paragraphs 21, 22, 25, 26, and 27. One must be deeply acquainted with metaphysics to grasp their full import. Paragraph 21, for instance, contains the very germ of the transcendental philosophy with which Emerson is so prominently identified. The obscure passages in his essays may be divided into two classes: first, those that are so packed with thought as at first to appear thoughtless; and second, those where the author saw vaguely a great thought, or believed that he saw one, and expressed it obscurely. Many of Emerson's sentences are mere riddles that not even the author could solve. Try to find examples of each class.

Obscurities.

The first thing that impresses the reader of Emerson is usually the disconnected nature of his style. He once complained that his sentences were infinitely repellent particles. Some of his essays read as if the sentences had been cut from a note-book and drawn one by one from a hat. Note how if you open the essays at random you will find that the first sentence that your eye alights upon can generally stand alone as a disconnected thought. Emerson more than almost any other essayist has followed Bacon and written “brief notes set down significantly.”

Disconnected style.

Next examine his sentences. Note that they are short and perfectly

*The figures refer to the paragraphs, which the student must number for himself.

Perfect sentences.

simple; that each is reduced to its lowest terms, compressed until it is impossible to find a superfluous word. There are sentences that could easily be expanded into paragraphs. What marvelous compression in sentences like these: "Every Stoic was a Stoic; but in Christendom where is the Christian?" "That divided and rebel mind, that distrust of a sentiment because our arithmetic has computed the strength and means opposed to our purpose, these [children] have not." Select other examples of compression. Note that wherever Emerson is obscure it is never on account of the structure of the sentence. A critic once complained that the essays were like strings of beads and was met with the answer, "Yes, but the beads are diamonds."

Precision in the use of words.

Emerson's vocabulary was wide and exact. He seldom failed to select the precise word which would convey his thought. Select at random words from his essays and try to replace them with more fitting synonyms. Underline all words that seem to you especially strong and precise. Note the fine shades of discrimination in the italicized words in the following passages: "Let us *affront* and *reprimand* the *smooth mediocrity* and *squalid contentment* of the times." "Our reading is *mendicant* and *sycophantic*." "The intellect is *vagabond* and our *system* of education *fosters* restlessness." "Napoleon conquered Europe by the *bivouac*, which consisted in *falling back* on *naked valor* and *disencumbering* it of all *aids*." One can underline a word in almost every sentence. Make a study of the adjective, remembering Emerson's well-known advice, "Avoid the adjective. Let the noun do the work." Note that the few adjectives that he makes use of are extremely telling in their effect. "Trust thyself: every heart vibrates to that *iron* string." "*Unaffected, unbiased, unbribable, unaffrighted* innocence." "We are *parlor* soldiers, we shun the *rugged* battle of fate."

Figurative language.

The essay is full of figures of speech, especially metaphors and similes. Make a list of them and study their sources and their effect. Note that they have a marvelous picturing power; that they are never used for mere effect but always to make the thought clearer and more forcible; that their imagery is taken almost wholly from every-day life. How effective are figures like these: "The man is as it were clapped into jail by his consciousness." "How easily we capitulate to badges and names, to large societies, and dead institutions." "What a blind man's buff is this game of conformity." "A foolish consistency is the hobgoblin of little minds." "A reverence for our past act or word because the eyes of others have no other data for computing our orbit than our past acts." Every page of Emerson is thick with metaphors and not one of them but adds force and clearness.

It is needless to go more into detail. Despite the disconnected character of his style it is wonderfully effective. His message is ever of the deepest and most solemn nature, yet it comes to us in a style as simple as the talk of children. Seldom do we find antithesis and balance or any of the involved and artificial constructions so conspicuous in a writer like Macaulay. There is no pedantry, no display of learning, no quotations from other languages. It is the style of an earnest, far-seeing man who sought only the truth and who cared only for his message.

Oracular sayings.

This brings us to our last and most important study. (What was the personality and the message of Emerson as revealed by this essay? What first impresses us is the oracular nature of his utterances. He speaks with conviction, as one who knows. Nowhere in the essay is there a modification or qualification of a statement; nowhere is there an implication that this may be so or this is doubtless so. He speaks with authority. "With consistency a great soul has simply nothing to do." "As men's prayers are a disease of the will, so are their creeds a disease of the intellect." "Traveling is a fool's paradise." "Society never advances." "In the Will work and acquire, and thou hast chained the

Wheel of Chance, and shall sit hereafter out of fear from her rotations." He never modifies and he seldom explains his extreme statements. His reader may misunderstand him, he cares not,—so much the worse for the reader. He lived by his own text: "What I must do is all that concerns me, not what the people think." "We cannot spend the day in explanation." It is this characteristic of Emerson that has gained for him the title "seer," and "prophet," and that has applied to his style the adjectives "oracular" and "orphic."

He is epigrammatic. A book of proverbs might be compiled from his essays. Run through the essay and mark the epigrams that seem especially brilliant. "Thy love afar is spite at home." "All history resolves itself very easily into the biography of a few stout and earnest persons." "If we live truly we shall see truly." "An institution is the lengthened shadow of one man." Make a list of his definitions as, for example, of genius, prayer, society, discontent. Only a wise man, and withal a man of genius, can make true epigrams in such abundance.

Emerson was a reformer. On every page there is the note of revolt. To a careless reader it may seem as if he condemned all that men hold sacred: education, art, society, philanthropy, religion; but in truth he condemned only abuses. He is not a pessimist in any sense, a sunny optimism shines everywhere in his works. His message might be summed up in the text, "Know the truth, and the truth shall make you free." He talks like one who has come from another planet and who looks about with mild surprise. He would lift men up to a higher plane of thinking; he would help them. He emphasizes everywhere the dignity of man; of every man. Every man is as good as a king, and better if he but follow the best that is in him. His message is one to make the poor and oppressed hold up their heads. If men but dared to follow his teaching the world would be revolutionized in a moment. "Let us never bow and apologize more. A great man is coming to eat at my house. I do not wish to please him; I wish that he should wish to please me." Democracy can go no further. Not even Walt Whitman can surpass this.

Emerson the
reformer.

It is good for young Americans to read Emerson. He is a mental tonic. He opens new vistas; he clears the fogs from the mind. For every thought that he expresses he implies ten. Note such suggestive passages as these and think them out to their logical end, you may awake to the fact that you have an intellect, an awakening that is of immense significance: "A boy is in the parlor what the pit is in the playhouse; independent, irresponsible." "See what strong intellects dare not yet hear God Himself unless He speak the phraseology of I know not what David, or Jeremiah, or Paul." "He feels no shame in not studying a profession for he does not postpone his life, but lives already." "Discontent is the want of self-reliance." Quote at random, you cannot fail to alight upon a significant line. One feels after mastering an essay by this modern prophet, that life has become a different thing. He feels ashamed of the low ideals and petty pursuits of his past and he resolves to seek a higher plane, to live in the true sense of the word. The words of this great, serene, pure-souled man keep ringing in his consciousness, "Trust thyself." "Accept the place the divine providence has found for you." "Be it how it will, do right now." "Life only avails, not the having lived." "Nothing can bring you peace but yourself. Nothing can bring you peace but the triumph of principles."

His essays a moral
and mental tonic.



THE INNER LIFE OF ULYSSES S. GRANT.*

✠ ✠ BY BISHOP JOHN H. VINCENT. ✠ ✠

It is not my purpose in attempting a brief study of the inner life of the distinguished general and president, to write his biography. It was my good fortune to form his acquaintance before he attained his world-wide reputation and through his kindness to continue it for several years after his promotion. And I aim at nothing more in this paper than to set forth as best I may the genuineness, the simplicity and the positive religious faith of the man himself.

First meeting.

I met Captain Grant for the first time in a Dubuque (Iowa) hotel in the winter of 1860. It was a severely cold morning, and as we stood by a great stove in the office of the hotel, he introduced himself to me as a member of my congregation in Galena, of which I had but recently been appointed pastor. I had known his father and had corresponded with him concerning a pastorate in Kentucky. It was a pleasure to me for the father's sake to meet the son. Naturally we fell into a conversation that morning on the topic of universal interest—the threatened secession of certain southern states. The intelligence which my new-found acquaintance showed on national questions, his knowledge of men and measures, his discrimination, animation and earnestness, both surprised and interested me. Standing by the fire, in his old blue army overcoat, his hands clasped behind him, he reminded me then of the familiar picture of Napoleon. I had been compelled to cross the river the night before at a late hour in a skiff, among floating ice, and he kindly consented to take a message to my wife that day, that she might be relieved of anxiety. After that morning I often watched, during the public services in my church at Galena, the calm, firm face of my interesting hearer.

Rapid promotion.

U. S. Grant came of good stock. He began in a respectable home the career that finally reached the heights of renown. He waited through many uneventful years for his opportunity. Within a single quadrennium he rose from the position of collecting clerk in a leather store, through the grades of drill-master, captain, colonel, brigadier and major-general, until he became general of the armies of the United States, and the most promising candidate for the presidency. In Galena he had not been unknown. His blue army overcoat marked him, and a few intimate friends among the best citizens held him in high esteem. Few really knew him, but all who did were bound to respect the quiet, modest, sensible citizen who had been graduated from West Point and had served in the Mexican war. Perhaps no one thought of the possibilities which he afterwards achieved. And yet there was *one* who did.

Faith of his wife.

It was my good fortune, as pastor of the Methodist Episcopal church in Galena, to be invited to give the address of farewell to the first company that left that city. After the departure of the train that afternoon, my wife and I made a call on Mrs. Grant to express to her our sympathy. She was brave and hopeful. Whatever other people may have thought, Mrs. Grant knew her husband, and whatever he may have desired, dreamed or resolved, his wife was animated by a noble ambition, and by unbounded



*This is the sixth CHAUTAUQUAN study of the Inner Life of Great Americans. "Stonewall" Jackson, by the Rev. Dr. J. Wm. Jones (one of General Jackson's chaplains during the Civil War), appeared in the October issue. John Greenleaf Whittier, by Mrs. James T. Fields, appeared in November. Phillips Brooks, by Pres. Charles F. Thwing, appeared in December. Mary Lyon, by Rev. Dr. A. E. Dunning, appeared in January. Dwight L. Moody, by Rev. Charles M. Stuart, D. D., appeared in February.

faith in his ability. After a conversation on the family, the war, the South, and the institution of slavery, on which last point she had pronounced opinions, I expressed the hope that her husband "might be preserved from all harm and restored to his family." To this she replied with promptness and ardor, "Dear me! I hope he will get to be a major-general or something big!" She knew the man, his capacities and possibilities. And when at City Point, in the service of the Christian Commission, three weeks before the fall of Richmond, while lunching with her, General Grant and General Rawlins, I reminded her of her expressed hope concerning the promotion of her husband. With a pleasant smile and much enthusiasm she replied, "I knew what was in him, if only he had a chance with the other fellows!" His success was never a surprise to the woman who knew him best. Within that apparently unambitious personality were the elements of power that needed only opportunity to make them manifest.

Success not a surprise.

Grant is often called "the silent man." As a matter of fact he was an interesting and able talker. As one said of Wordsworth, "You would have said he was a usually taciturn man, and yet he seemed glad to unlock himself to audience sympathetic and intelligent when such offered itself." When thus adjusted, Grant's utterance was free, his manner simple and direct, his vocabulary ample and excellent. His reserve arose in part from natural timidity but for the most part from wisdom. He knew when to be silent. And he knew when and how to speak. Carlyle says, "Under all speech that is good for anything there lies a silence that is better." Grant was master of both.

"The silent man."

He was not in any sense timid, but was modest and retiring. He never seemed to enjoy public demonstrations in his honor. When on his way from the west to take command of the army of the Potomac, he was received by Congress in Washington, and amidst the enthusiastic demonstrations of the occasion blushed like a schoolgirl and seemed ill at ease in that august presence.

Modest and retiring.

As I had delivered the farewell address to his company at the time of its departure in 1861, the general kindly invited me to accompany him on his return for the great reception given him at Galena in 1865, and to speak for him in response to the address of welcome to be given by Senator Washburn. The special train provided by the railway company for that journey was luxuriously furnished, and on the way I called his attention to the contrast between his present surroundings and his experience "in the wilderness" on the way to Richmond. He promptly answered, "Yes, it is very fine; and but for the suffering of the men I greatly prefer the wilderness."

Return to Galena.

He was a thoroughly magnanimous man. At Vicksburg, after the success of his own plan against the written protest of General Sherman, his return to Sherman of the original copy of that protest illustrated his character. His unqualified praise of the generals who shared with him the responsibilities and honors of the war, his generous terms to the surrendering hosts at Appomattox — these are but illustrations of the largeness, breadth and nobility of his character. And the loyalty of the hero to his own old-time friends was simply beautiful. In his elevation he seemed never to forget any whom he had known and for whom he had at all cared before. When, after his return to Galena in 1865, one of the great railway companies placed at his disposal a train for an excursion through certain parts of the northwest, giving him *carte blanche* in the selection of his guests, Grant invited his old friends and comrades of the *ante bellum* years to accompany him. Social and financial position was not taken into account, and the faithful friends of the humbler years went with their loyal and royal companion on his triumphal march. He was always considerate of others, unassuming and humble. He gave this excuse for not using his carriage on Sunday: "I made up my mind when I was a poor

Thoroughly magnanimous.

Consideration for others.

Camp Near Corinth, Miss.
May 25th 1862

Rev. J. H. Vincent,

Your letter of the 17th inst. is just at hand and I hasten to answer. Having been educated a soldier, at the expense of the nation, it was my clear duty to offer my services. I never asked for any position or army rank but entered with my whole soul in the cause of the Union, willing to sacrifice every thing in the cause, even my life if needed, for its preservation. It has been my good fortune to render some service to the cause and my very bad luck to have attracted the attention of newspaper scribbles. It certainly never was my desire to attract public attention but has been my desire to do my whole duty in this just cause.

Yours Truly
U. S. Grant

EXTRACT FROM ONE OF GENERAL GRANT'S LETTERS.

Sabbath observance.

man that if ever able to keep a servant, that servant should have opportunity to attend religious services on the Sabbath. For that reason I do not call carriage, horses or servants into use on that day."

Strong, positive, courageous.

And yet this gentle, courteous, affectionate man was strong, positive, self-reliant and courageous. He was absolutely fearless. On his death-bed, to Ulysses, his son, he said, "I am ready to go. No Grant ever feared death. I am not afraid to die." He was not unlike Carnot as described by Carlyle, with his "cold, mathematical head, and silent stubbornness of will . . . far-planning, imperturbable, unconquerable, who in the hour of need shall not be found wanting." He was like Frederick the Great, "veracious, courageous, invisible," and what Carlyle saw in John Howard we see in Ulysses S. Grant, "Veracity, solidity,

simplicity . . . slow energy, patience, practicality, sedulity, sagacity."

Our hero was a religious man. He was well trained by godly parents in his early life, and he never forgot the "first principles" in which he was grounded from the beginning. He was a Methodist in his training, predilections and convictions. He was a regular attendant at the Methodist Episcopal church in Galena, saying to Mr. Lincoln in 1865, when at City Point he introduced to the president his former pastor, "I always attended his church in Galena and never missed one of his sermons while I was there." When in Chicago in 1865 at the great Sanitary Commission fair and festival, he was urged on Sunday to attend this or that church—Presbyterian or Protestant Episcopal, he said, "No, I have an old friend, my former pastor, in a church here and I shall go there." He rode nearly four miles that Sabbath morning to attend the church of his choice. In March, 1866, while the same pastor was on a visit in Washington, General Grant invited him to baptize his youngest son—"the only member of the family," he said, "who has not been baptized." Several of the general's staff were present, with other officers of the army and their wives. The service was impressive. The pledge required of parents by the church was read. As the general bowed his head in assent to its requirements, his eyes were filled with tears. In a conversation with that pastor the same evening he said, "I consider the Methodist Episcopal church my church, and desire that my children be brought up in it."

Religious life.

One evening in private conversation with General Grant (before he was elected to the presidency) I said, "I recently read in a religious paper the following statement: 'The only military leader who in his despatches and other communications makes almost no reference to God and His providence in national affairs, is General Grant.'" He at once and with emphasis replied, "I have never doubted the divine interposition in the affairs of life. I know that in many cases where my plans as a military leader have failed, the outcome has always been better than if my plans had succeeded. I have no doubt at all that a higher than human wisdom has guided the nation in this civil war." He added, as if in defense of his silence in his public communications, "So much was said on the other side in public, civil and military messages about God, that I thought I could afford to say less and trust more."

Belief in divine providence.

He was a man of pure speech, refusing even to listen to a salacious story, and on more than one occasion administered reproof to persons guilty of the impropriety.

Pure in speech.

I am confident that General Grant was a genuine Christian. His constant attendance upon public worship, his reverence for all the functions of the Christian church, his close and interested attention to the sermon, his reiterated expression of faith in the Holy Scriptures as God's Word—"they are man's best guide," he said,—his pronounced faith in the divine providence, his interest in conversation on religious subjects, and the free and frequent discussion of the subject-matter of sermons to which he had listened, are proofs of religious conviction and of religious taste. He was a man of prayer. He said, "I often pray to God in the night silently." And again, "I mentally seek help from Him."

A genuine Christian.

His whole attitude toward the church was a positive confession of Christ before the world. He personally believed in Christ. He was baptized during the last year of his life by Bishop John P. Newman. He said, "I am conscious of having lived a good and honorable life." And there has been found no man who could gainsay that.

Attitude toward the church.

Grant had very little of what we call "sentiment" in his nature. He never liked parade and demonstration. He disliked music of all kinds. I can see how a man of his temperament would care little for the outward rites, although it is said that once in Metropolitan Church, at the time of

Cared little for outward rites.

the administration of the Holy Communion, he leaned forward to Schuyler Colfax who sat immediately in front of him, and offered to go to the communion if the vice-president would accompany him. For some reason Colfax declined. There was much of the Quaker in Grant. He was like George Fox, Elizabeth Fry, John Woolman, and a host of devout souls whose religious life was the inner life and who in simplest fashion gave testimony before the world of their faith. Grant naturally disliked the over-emphasis of ceremony, and excessive religious volubility. Temperaments of that kind may easily be driven to the extreme of absolute silence.

Emotional nature.

One of his physicians said, "He is not devoid of emotional nature, but his emotions from early life have been diverted from their natural channels of expression and have expended themselves at the vital centers. What has been called imperturbability is simply introversion of his feelings."

Test of his religious life.

Grant's inner religious life never more clearly revealed itself than in that testing process of financial disaster and the long months of physical suffering through which he passed. Over against the years of brilliant achievement, world-wide fame, unceasing popular applause, both at home and abroad, came years of anxiety, feebleness, helplessness and acute pain. Yet with the same old heroism he triumphed at MacGregor as on many a battle-field. The faith of his childhood in the God of his mother did not fail him. As Hamlin Garland felicitously says, "In ever-increasing calm he drifted toward the shadowed world. Despair had no place in the growing serenity of his manner. There was a lofty courage which laid hold upon great conceptions of human destiny. . . . He had an unspeakable faith in the integrity of the universe. He had no map of the unseen land towards which he was marching, but he believed it to be a better land than this. . . . He did not know, but he had no fear."

Tribute to his mother.

At the funeral services of his venerable mother in May, 1883, General Grant said to Dr. Howard Henderson, her pastor, "Make such disposition of the services as in your judgment seems appropriate, but in the remarks which you make speak of her only as a pure-minded, simple-hearted, earnest, Methodist Christian; make no reference to me; she gained nothing by any position I have filled or honors that may have been paid me. I owe all this and all that I am to her earnest, modest and sincere piety."

Thoroughly American.

Ulysses S. Grant will live in history. He was American to the core, democratic in every instinct, an avowed enemy of every system, political, civil and ecclesiastical, that attempts to curtail personal liberty in any direction; he was the embodiment of resoluteness and persistency, and yet he had a tender and sympathetic heart—a woman's heart. He was sound in judgment, an incarnation of common sense; if not always the wisest judge of men in private life, he did know men when his powers of judgment were stimulated by any present emergency. He was loyal to the last to personal friends and devoted with a most beautiful affection to his family. His domestic life was stainless, his love for his wife and children steady and ardent. He was profoundly in earnest, conscientious, silent under abuse, pure in speech and thought, magnanimous to the foes he defeated, reverent and trustful as he bowed before the God of his father and mother, honoring the day of God and the house of God; patient in suffering, and was, as a writer in *Macmillan's Magazine* says, an "intrepid soul which refused to be crushed even when all his little world stood around him in ruins." A writer in the *North American Review* wisely said, "Neither responsibility nor turmoil nor danger nor pleasure nor pain impaired the force of his resolution. . . . What did the obligations, the temptations, the sorrows, the struggles of life make of this man? One of the truest, bravest, strongest human entities the world has ever produced."

Pure domestic life.

His personality.

End of
Required Reading.

C. L. Round



S. C. Table.

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TO THE CLASS OF 1900.

From beyond the sea, from the banks of the famed Rhine, from the city of Beethoven and the land of Lessing, Schiller and Goethe, greeting!

There is a mystic tie which binds together the seekers of truth and culture in all lands and all times. The Class of 1900 completes its course of reading and circle study with the closing year of the most wonderful century of time,—the most wonderful because it is the latest, and has enfolded within itself the best results of all the centuries that have gone before it, and added the fruits of its own awakened life and its own genius.

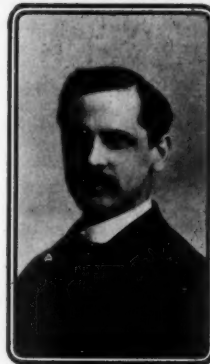
As we set our seal upon the nineteenth century, we link ourselves with all the nobly-striving souls of the ages past, who have, by their self-culture and achievements, made possible the fulness of life and opportunity which lie at our hand.

Conscious of this priceless legacy, we see our duty and privilege to add to it by the same means, as we pass it on to the next generation, and thus make the twentieth century greater because the nineteenth has been ours.

The evolution of civilization is achieved by the units of individual growth and endeavor. In the vast complexity of human society progress is possible by each man discovering his own powers and using them in his own appointed field. Beethoven once said that if he understood the art of war as he did the art of music, he could conquer Napoleon. If, however, he had betaken himself to the military world he might have failed. He knew the art of music, and has, through all the growing years, by his marvelous symphonies, conquered the warring human spirit, and awakened slumbering genius to self-conquest and power.

As I tear off a leaf of the little German calendar upon my wall, the motto for the

day confronts me: "*Des Menschen Wille, das ist sein Glück*" (Man's will is his fortune). Chautauqua does not interfere with this supreme power of self-determination, except it be by silent conquests, such as those of the Beethoven symphonies. Its work is direction and inspiration. It suggests means



N. I. RUBINKAM, D. D.

"Faith in the God of truth,
Hope for the unfolding centuries,
Charity toward all endeavor."

The following year we added a second shorter motto,—an epitome of the first: "*Licht, Liebe, Leben*,"—the legend upon the monument of the great Herder at Weimar. Upon this latter motto I have founded our class song, which, according to our secretary, fell to my lot to compose. I hope that it may be acceptable to the members.

Trusting this closing year of the course may be to all of you the richest and the best, I am,

Faithfully yours,

NATHANIEL I. RUBINKAM.

BONN ON THE RHINE, Jan. 23, 1900.



THE GOAL AND 1900.

Members of the Class of 1900 are already beginning to shape their plans for graduation.

Those who are fortunate enough to attend an assembly will need to have their papers sent in earlier than those who receive their diplomas by mail. During the spring, each member will receive a special circular from the central office at Cleveland, giving a list of all Recognition Days, with dates. Those who graduate at Chautauqua can hand in their papers after they reach the assembly, if necessary, but this liberty is intended only



C. L. S. C. ALUMNI HALL.

for hard-pressed readers, and it is well to get all reports in shape early and have them in the Cleveland office before the first of July. At this point it may be well to reiterate the statement printed in every copy of the Membership Book, that the filling of memoranda is not necessary to graduation. Some of our readers live lives of constant struggle and interruption—to these the reading brings strength and refreshment, but writing seems to them a task beyond their powers. Let this be a reminder to all such that the diploma may be won honorably on the strength of the reading alone. A blank for report will be furnished in due time. Let every member of the Class of 1900, whether behind with his work or not, take new courage as the bright summer days approach, and remember that

“—one constant element of luck
Is genuine, solid, old Teutonic pluck.”

THE CLASS OF 1900 AND ALUMNI HALL.

C. L. S. C. members who have visited Chautauqua do not need to be reminded of the important place which Alumni Hall occupies in the social life of the assembly. Alumni Hall is a club house built by the C. L. S. C. classes and reserved exclusively for their use. Additions and improvements are made to it from year to year, and it has

already gathered about itself a host of venerable traditions. Every graduate of 1900 doubtless looks forward to a vision of the “Golden Gate” at Chautauqua some time, even if it may not be in his graduation year, while those who are to be at Chautauqua this summer will be especially glad to share in all class responsibilities and privileges. In order to secure the necessary amount to pay their share of the class building fund, the class last year voted to send the following letter to as many members as it was possible to reach through others, but as only a part of the class have as yet been in attendance at Chautauqua, the Round Table asks the privilege of lending a hand in bringing it before the entire class. Not only will each contribution, however small, count for a great deal, but the personal friendly word to the secretary and treasurer will add much to the *esprit de corps* of the class. Where there are a number of 1900's in a circle, some form of entertainment might be devised which would add substantially to the class treasury. It will be noticed that the letter is not one of the “chain” variety, which is on many accounts objectionable. Whatever you can or cannot do, good member of 1900, write to the secretary and tell her so.

MY DEAR CLASSMATE:

At one of the class meetings at Chautauqua we decided to send a letter from member to member to interest them in the affairs of 1900. Last year's appeal for help to pay the class's obligation brought so few responses that less than twenty-five dollars has been paid on the class's share in Alumni Hall.

The reduction in the price of the books will perhaps make it easier for us to contribute, and, if you do not feel that you can give all that you saved on your books, can you not give a part of that sum?

It will not be possible to reach all the members of 1900. If any live in your town please see that they receive this letter. When you have signed your name, please address the envelope to another member of 1900 and mail. If you do not know another member of 1900, take a name from the enclosed list and cross off the name used. Then write to the class treasurer and say to whom you sent the letter and enclose your contribution to the class fund; or name the amount and date when you will pay it. If you do not care to contribute, then just sign your name and send a postal card to the treasurer, telling where the letter has been sent.

PLEASE DO NOT PUT ANY MONEY OR WRITE ANY AMOUNTS IN THE CLASS LETTER, as it may be a long time reaching the treasurer.

The success of this letter depends upon your mailing it promptly to another classmate, and the treasurer will be able to trace the journeyings of the letter by the responses sent to her.

Our president, Doctor Rubinkam, is in Europe and he has sent his signature to be put on the list.

Yours,
MABEL CAMPBELL,
Secretary and Treasurer, 1900.

No. 53 Younglove ave., COHOES, N. Y.

ERRORS OF THE EDUCATED.

The air is rife with discussions of "good English." Even the genial English critic, Mr. William Archer, has not escaped the clutches of the reviewer who seizes upon Mr. Archer's discriminating little volume, "America Today," and triumphantly holds up to view this sentence: "The two forms would fight it out and the fittest would survive." We do not, however, need to go across the ocean for examples to point a moral, when we hear an American club leader request "every one to consult their own program," or an after-dinner speaker decline to "take prec'edence over another." Do the people who habitually cut off coupons, or those who do not, most frequently say, "kewpon"? How many of us use "fasset" for faucet? And how often do we hear "he don't" and "will I do it?" A dainty calendar loses half its charm when inscribed with the sentiment "Today is ours only", for it strikes us as not only ungrammatical but aggressively grasping. That troublesome "only" is a constant pitfall for the unwary. Much interest seems to have been taken in last month's selections from "Errors of the Educated," and we add a few more for the consideration of the Round Table. Attention should be called to an error in proof-reading in the February list: the pronunciation of the last syllable of magazine should have been "zeen."

ab do'men	joc'und
ad dress' (noun and verb)	man da rin' (reen)
a dept'	mes'mer ism (mez)
black'guard (blag ard)	mis'con'strue (mez)
cou'pon (coo)	mol'e cule
clang'or (clang ger)	nom'ad
cog no'men	ob'li ga to ry
fac'et (fas)	pas'tel
fau'cet (faw)	ped'a go gy (jy)
hand'ker chiefs (hang ker chifs)	pi a'nist (or an)
im pla'ca ble	pre ce'dence
in com'pa ra ble	pre ce'dent (n. pres)
in ex'pli ca ble	pre ce'dent (adj.)
in hos'pi ta ble	pres en ta'tion (prez)
in qui'ries	pro'gram (not grm)

Make yourselves nests of pleasant thoughts. None of us yet know, for none of us have been taught in early youth, what fairy palaces we may build of beautiful thought—proof against all adversity. Bright fancies, satisfied memories, noble histories, faithful sayings, treasure-houses of precious and restful thoughts, which care cannot disturb, nor pain make gloomy, nor poverty take away from us,—houses built without hands, for our souls to live in.—*John Ruskin.*

EVOLUTION OF AN OHIO SETTLEMENT.

The following graphic account of the evolution of a small settlement in northern Ohio is contributed by the Chautauqua Circle of Perkins. It is of interest both as a concrete illustration of American expansion and as a picturesque description of scenes from everyday life:

Perkins derives its name from Elias Perkins, a large landholder in the region. When the first settlers came, the land was partly covered with a dense forest, and the remaining portion with grass so rank that it reached to the shoulders of a man on horseback, so that one could see but a short distance, if not on a ridge.

The first settlers came from Glastonbury, Connecticut. They were sturdy Yankees, whose ancestors had fought against the soldiers of King George. They journeyed with their families and household goods in large emigrant wagons drawn by heavy oxen, from six to eight often being necessary to draw the wagon through the rough places, for they had no good roads, and often had to wade through swamps, contesting the right of way with rattlesnakes and copperheads, over Indian trails and through dense woods, where the path was well studded with stumps.

After numerous hardships and months of weary travel, they at last reached their destination, and in the year 1815 erected the first rough log cabins, afterwards replaced by better buildings. These, too, have nearly all disappeared, but a few are still standing with their large chimneys and colonial style of architecture—landmarks of the past. The Perkins settlement was about five miles south of Sandusky on what is now



CHURCH AT PERKINS, OHIO.

known as Columbus avenue, a road that, passing through the center of Sandusky, ends at the docks of that town, and an east and west road called Yankee street. The first homes were one- and two-roomed buildings with large fireplaces and huge chimneys, in which the settlers often smoked their meat, and brick ovens in which they baked their whole week's baking at once, first heating the oven hot, then removing the fire, placing the baking within and leaving the oven to cool. They grew their own flax, spun their thread and wove their cloth at home. Grain and grass were harvested and cut with a scythe, as was the head of many an inquisitive rattlesnake. Indeed, rattlesnakes

were very numerous until the advent of the reaper, when their heads were harvested in such large quantities as nearly to exterminate them from this part of the world.

The woods were full of game, wild turkeys were very numerous, and deer often bounded by the settler's door. Rabbits and quail were too plentiful to be any sport for the hunter. Wildcats, by some called "panthers," were sometimes seen, an early pioneer having a narrow escape from one. Wolves were very numerous and the first sheep brought out quickly fell victims to them. Later, when the county offered a bounty of two dollars apiece for their scalps, as many as forty scalps were presented in one year. Indians were a common sight and often pitched their tents in the adjacent forest.

The second year the settlers founded a school on Yankee street; at about this time they first had divine services, and were never afterwards without them for any length of time. The M. E. Church of the pioneers, a frame building, was built on the southeast corner of Yankee street and Columbus avenue. But over forty years ago, a brick church was erected on the northeast corner, at the parsonage of which we now hold our Chautauqua Circle. All the members, with the exception of the pastor and his wife, are the direct descendants of the early pioneers. All, or nearly all, the pioneer homesteads are owned by the descendants, and fine residences, with the latest improvements, have taken the place of the humbler dwellings. The roads, once made of logs placed one after another and called "corduroy," are now replaced by well-stoned roads, and some of the present generation have never seen or heard of a log road. So soon is the past forgotten in the hurry of the present.



FICTION AND ATHLETICS.

In a recent number of *The Bookman*, the editor suggested the idea of an imaginary football eleven to be chosen from the Valhalla of fiction. His selection for this purpose, announced in the November issue, was promptly challenged by a Pittsburg correspondent, who set up a rival team of his own choice, contending that it was vastly superior to that of *The Bookman*. Now comes Professor White of the University of Pennsylvania, complaining that no American hero appears in the previous lists, and offering an entire American team which, he says, "any unprejudiced critic" will admit could "wipe up the field with either of the others suggested." We give below the three teams and leave to our circles the discussion as to their fitness. From the intensity with which the contest has raged in *The Bookman*, it is evident that character studies of these heroes will bring out some fine points of discrimination. Circles unfamiliar with football tactics can doubtless secure the assistance of a "coach" who will cheerfully guide their deliberations, while they in turn will be prepared to make good any deficiencies in his knowledge of the gentlemen under consideration. (Further discussion of the subject

will be found in *The Bookman* for November, 1899, January and February, 1900.)

The Bookman Eleven.

Michael Volodyovaky,	Left end.
Le Noir Fainéant,	Left tackle.
Pan Longin,	Left guard.
John Ridd,	Center.
Ursus,	Right guard.
Taffy Wynne,	Right tackle.
Aramis,	Right end.
D'Artagnan,	Quarter-back.
Ivanhoe,	Left half-back.
Porthos,	Right half-back.
Athos,	Full-back.
Zagloba,	Coach.

The Pittsburg Eleven.

Umpelopagaas,	Left end.
Sir Henry Curtis,	Left tackle.
Samson,	Left guard.
Goliath,	Center.
Herakles,	Right guard.
Kwasind,	Right tackle.
Mowgli,	Right end.
Ulysses,	Quarter-back.
Thord,	Left half-back.
Siegfried,	Right half-back.
Cœur de Lion,	Full-back.
Panurge,	Coach.
Private Mulvaney and } Allan Quartermain, }	Assistant coaches.

All-American Team.

Magua,	Left end.
Dick Bullen,	Left tackle.
Hurry Harry,	Left guard.
Natty Bumppo,	Center.
Chingachgook,	Right guard.
Hugh Wynne,	Right tackle.
Uncas,	Right end.
Van Bibber,	Quarter-back.
Specimen Jones,	Left half-back.
Jack Hamlin,	Right half-back.
Richard Carvel,	Full-back.
Mr. Dooley,	Head coach.
David Harum,	Assistant coach.



THE BIOGRAPHICAL CLUB.

"Life is real — not evanescent nor slight. It does not vanish away; every noble life leaves the fibre of it, forever, in the work of the world."— *Ruskin*.

The death of John Ruskin brings into prominence the life of a great man. As we read the record of his work for the world, many of us will wonder why we have not known him better. The truth of the Cumberland peasant's comment, "Eh, he's a grand chap, is Maister Ruskin," has been echoed half unconsciously by thousands who have come under the inspiring influence of his thought. C. L. S. C. readers whose interest in social questions has been quickened by their recent study of Socialism will read with new appreciation the story of this life,

which from its early manhood was devoted to the service of humanity.

From an admirable syllabus on Ruskin by Frederick Henry Sykes, staff lecturer in English literature of the American Society for the Extension of University Teaching, we quote the following paragraphs: (Copies of this syllabus can be secured from the above society, 111 South Fifteenth street, Philadelphia, for fifteen cents.)

"The authoritative biographies of Ruskin are his own 'Praeterita' (incomplete but charming, especially in the picture of his boyhood) and 'The Life and Work of John Ruskin,' by W. G. Collingwood (London, Methuen and Company). Shorter sketches are as follows: 'John Ruskin: A Biographical Outline,' by W. G. Collingwood (London, Virtue and Company); 'John Ruskin: His Life and Teaching,' by J. Marshall Mather, third edition (London and New York; Frederick Warne). The pleasant personal sketch by Mrs. Ritchie in *Harper's Magazine*, March, 1890, should not be passed over, and the interesting illustrations of Ruskin in the *Art Journal*, XXXIII. (1881), pp. 321, 353; XXXVIII. (1886), p. 46; *Magazine of Art*, XIV., pp. 73, 121; *McClure's*, Vol. II., 315.

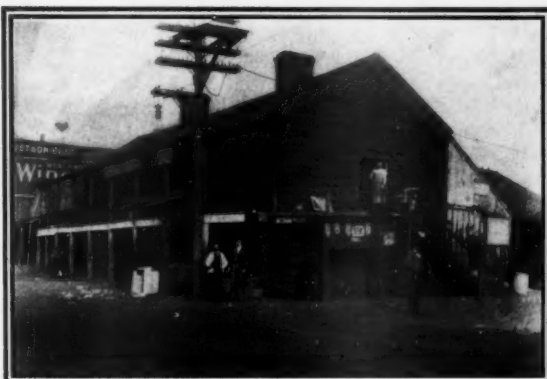
"Ruskin can be approached to best advantage by means of his 'Praeterita,' of which all the early chapters should be read for the key they afford to his mind and sympathies. After this 'Sesame and Lilies' should be studied and briefly summarized; it contains much of Ruskin's best teaching in education and ethics. 'Unto This Last' should be similarly read for his views of political economy. Of his writings on art and architecture the 'Seven Lamps' or 'Modern Painters,' Vol. V., Pt. VII, 'Of Cloud Beauty,' may be taken as illustrations."

Topics for essays and studies: (1) Ruskin's personal character. (2) Biographic sketches, as Ruskin at Herne Hill or "Brantwood." (3) J. M. W. Turner and his vindication by Ruskin. (4) The Guild of St. George; its aims and results. (5) Ruskin's principles of art (see "Laws of Féscole"). (6) Ruskin as an economist. (7) Ruskin's views on books and reading ("Sesame"). (8) Ruskin's views on the education and place of women (chiefly based on "Lilies"). (9) "Fors Clavigera"; its meaning, duration, object, style. (10) Points of agreement in the teaching of Carlyle and Ruskin. (11) Ruskin's poetry. (12) Ruskin's prose style. (13) Ruskin as a preacher of the higher life.

AN ITEM OF TEXAS HISTORY.

The Chautauqua Circle at Nacogdoches, Texas, sends a contribution to the Round Table studies in local history. This circle has been organized for four years. One year the members studied Shakespeare, and for three years past they have been enrolled in the C. L. S. C. Class of 1901. The study of Socialism was pursued with much energy.

Free and animated discussions took place at almost every meeting, the circle being divided into two sections for the sake of argument. The secretary's report regarding the "Old Stone Fort" says: "Many people living far from us have but one idea of Texas, vast prairies, long-horned cattle and cowboys. Nacogdoches is a quaint and beautiful little town nestled among the thickly wooded red hills of eastern Texas. It has many romantic and historical interests, being one of the oldest towns in the state, and at



OLD STONE FORT, NACOGDOCHES, TEXAS.

times the home of such well-known men as Sam Houston, Thomas J. Rusk, Tom Ochiltree and others. In the central portion of the town stands an old stone fort over which five national flags have floated,—Spanish, Mexican, Republic of Texas, the Confederate, and the United States flag twice. The exact date of the erection of the fort is not known, but it is usually placed in 1619."

All members of the C. L. S. C. will welcome the announcement that special studies in birds are to form a feature of the Round Table each month for the remainder of the year. Mrs. Florence Merriam Bailey, the author of our book, "Birds Through an Opera Glass", will conduct these studies, furnishing hints and programs which we hope will be utilized by circles and individual readers. Blanks for special reports upon this subject will be sent out in the spring, and the circles are asked to report fully in order that others may have the benefit of their experience. Reports from readers who are not members of circles will also be most acceptable.

BIRD STUDY.

CONDUCTED BY MRS. FLORENCE MERRIAM BAILEY.

As people throughout the length and breadth of the land are coming to realize, bird study is one of the most fascinating of nature pursuits. To be sure, merely reading about birds, as one would about ancient Greece, is small satisfaction or profit, but the richest pleasure the study offers is open to all who can go to the parks or fields.

Early spring is the best time to commence "birding," for before the rush from the south begins you have a quiet interval in which to get acquainted with the birds that have stayed north through the winter. When the first wild flowers call you to the woods, the songs of the newcomers thrill you as part of the joy of the awakening season; and month by month, as the new life of tree and plant unfolds, bird life becomes fraught with richer interest. The first light-hearted songs of the home-coming are followed by the ecstatic lays of courtship, and these by the deep joyous songs of the bird to his mate on her nest. Each episode in the home-making is a delight to those who look on with the tender sympathy due "our little brothers of the air."

WINTER BIRDS.

This month brings us our last opportunity for a quiet study of the winter birds. The first question to answer is, what they are; the second, why they rather than others stay north in spite of the cold. Each section has its own census roll. In the middle eastern states we have among the most common

PERMANENT RESIDENTS:

bob-white,	hairy woodpecker,
ruffed grouse,	flicker,
red-shouldered hawk,	blue jay,
red-tailed hawk,	crow,
sharp-shinned hawk,	meadow-lark,
barred owl,	goldfinch,
long-eared owl,	purple finch,
screech owl,	song sparrow,
great horned owl,	white-breasted nuthatch,
downy woodpecker,	chickadee.

In the neighborhood of Washington the turkey buzzard, fish crow, cardinal, Carolina wren, tufted titmouse, and Carolina chickadee are also common residents. In St. Louis there are, among others added to the list, tree sparrow, mourning dove, bald eagle, sapsucker, red-bellied woodpecker, cowbird, red-winged blackbird, and crow blackbird. In San Francisco, where the winters are mild, the parks have such insectivorous birds

as the black phoebe, Audubon's warbler and humming-bird, as well as the western forms of the flicker, blue jay, quail, chewink, white-crowned sparrow, junco, song sparrow, robin, and hermit thrush. For western birds see Coues' "Key to North American Birds," Bendire's "Life Histories of North American Birds," "Bird-Notes Afield," C. A. Keeler. From the north come, as

WINTER VISITANTS:

saw-whet owl,	tree sparrow,
horned lark,	junco,
snowflake,	northern shrike,
Lapland longspur,	winter wren,
American crossbill,	golden-crowned kinglet,
white-throated sparrow,	brown creeper.

RELATION OF WINTER BIRDS TO FOOD SUPPLY.

A glance at these lists answers our second question, for the birds are mainly: 1. Weed-seed eaters—finches and sparrows. 2. Small mammal eaters—shrikes, hawks and owls. 3. Insect egg and larvæ eaters—woodpeckers, chickadees, creepers, kinglets. Tree-borers, weeds, mice and moles we have always with us, so while humming-birds and flycatchers must go south for food, their neighbors with better regulated appetites can stay at home.

RELATION OF BILLS AND FEET TO FOOD.

An examination of the hooked beaks and sharp talons of the hawks and owls shows that they are adapted to catching and tearing their prey, while the long chisel bills of the woodpeckers are fitted for drilling holes in trees, and the conical bills of the finches for cracking seeds.

FEEDING AND ATTRACTING BIRDS.

Boxes nailed to trees with backs to the wind afford the best shelter for bird food in winter, but a window shelf protected by awning is also good. Hemp seed, sunflower seed, nuts, fine-cracked corn, bread, and buckwheat attract many birds, while berries are called by bones and fat fresh pork, and the crossbills like salt pork rind. In summer the birds need pans of water more than food. Tangles of shrubbery, and wild berry bearing bushes afford food and good nesting sites, while bird boxes call many little neighbors. To protect the birds attracted, cats should be kept away from one's yard, and

one's woods posted with signs forbidding shooting.

Publications on food of birds: Biological Survey, Department of Agriculture, Washington, D. C.; Massachusetts State Board of Agriculture, Malden, Mass. (articles by E. H. Forbush); Rhode Island Board of Agriculture, Providence, R. I. (paper by A. M. Grant); Department of Agriculture, Toronto, Canada (paper by Chas. W. Nash); New Hampshire College, Agricultural Experiment Station, Durham, N. H., Bulletins 54 and 55, 1898. An admirable nature study leaflet on "Our Common Birds, Suggestions for Study of Life and Work," by Prof. C. F. Hodges, Clark University, Worcester, Mass. This is sold for ten cents. An Audubon chart with colored plates of twenty-six birds has been issued by the Massachusetts Audubon Society and is sold for one dollar. A leaflet on "The Educational Value of Bird Study," by F. M. Chapman, can be had from the New York Audubon Society.

Directory of State Audubon Societies, with names and addresses of their secretaries: *New Hampshire*, Mrs. F. W. Batchelder, Manchester; *Massachusetts*, Miss Harriet E. Richards, care Boston Society of Natural History, Boston; *Rhode Island*, Mrs. H. T. Grant, Jr., 187 Bowen street, Providence; *Connecticut*, Mrs. William Brown Glover, Fairfield; *New York*, Miss Emma H. Lockwood, 243 West Seventy-fifth street, New York City; *New Jersey*, Miss Anna Haviland, 53 Sandford avenue, Plainfield; *Pennsylvania*, Mrs. Edward Robins, 114 South Twenty-first street, Philadelphia; *District of Columbia*, Mrs. John Dewhurst Patten, 3033 P. street, Washington; *Maryland*, Miss Anna Weston Whitney, 715 St. Paul street, Baltimore; *Wheeling, W. Va.* (branch of Pa. society), Elizabeth I. Cummins, 1314 Chapline street, Wheeling; *Ohio*, Miss Clara Russell, 903 Paradrome street, Cincinnati; *Indiana*, Amos W. Butler, State House, Indianapolis; *Illinois*, Miss Mary Drummond, Wheaton; *Iowa*, Miss Nellie S. Board, Keokuk; *Wisconsin*, Mrs. George W. Peckham, 646 Marshall street, Milwaukee; *Minnesota*, Mrs. J. P. Elmer, 314 West Third street, St. Paul; *Tennessee*, Mrs. C. C. Conner, Ripley; *Texas*, Miss Cecile Soixas, 2008 Thirty-ninth street, Galveston; *California*, Mrs. George S. Gay, Redlands.

HOW TO WORK IN THE CIRCLES.

Too much emphasis cannot be laid on the

fact that the pleasure and value of bird study in the circles hangs on the field work done by each member. Boys who know the haunts and habits of the birds, and local bird men willing to loan bird skins or to assist in identifications will be important allies, and may be persuaded to take the circles afield to teach the members how to observe. In this way permanent bird clubs may be established. But it is *what we do ourselves* that helps us, and week after week each member should go to the field to get material for the next meeting of the circle. Birds that cannot be identified by the appendix to "Birds Through an Opera Glass" may be found by means of the keys in "Birds of Village and Field," Mrs. Wright's "Birdcraft," or Chapman's "Handbook of Birds." The notes brought to the circles should be illustrated by blackboard drawings with colored chalks, or with original photographs, pictures, or borrowed bird skins. In city circles the birds seen in the parks can be compared with museum specimens and the Audubon plates in libraries, as well as with illustrations in the popular books. Careful field notes should be preserved, for so little is known of the habits of individual birds that discoveries worth recording in the popular bird journals may be made by all field students. These journals are in the east, *Bird-Lore*, a bi-monthly, published by Mr. Frank M. Chapman, Englewood, New Jersey (Price \$1; single copies 20c.), and in the west, *The Condor* (Price \$1; single copies 25c.), edited by Chester Barlow, Santa Clara, California.

Each circle should provide itself with all the government and state literature open to the public, together with the publications of its own state Audubon societies.

OUTLINE OF READING AND PROGRAMS.

C. L. S. C. MOTTOES.

"We Study the Word and the Works of God."

"Let us Keep our Heavenly Father in the Midst."

"Never be Discouraged."

C. L. S. C. MEMORIAL DAYS.

OPENING DAY—October 1.

BRYANT DAY—November, second Sunday.

MILTON DAY—December 9.

COLLEGE DAY—January, last Thursday.

LANIER DAY—February 3.

SPECIAL SUNDAY—February, second Sunday.

LONGFELLOW DAY—February 27.

SHAKESPEARE DAY—April 23.

ADDISON DAY—May 1.

SPECIAL SUNDAY—May, second Sunday.

SPECIAL SUNDAY—July, second Sunday.

INAUGURATION DAY—August, first Sunday after first Tuesday.

ST. PAUL'S DAY—August, second Saturday after first Tuesday.

RECOGNITION DAY—August, third Wednesday.

OUTLINE OF REQUIRED READING.

February 26—March 5—

In THE CHAUTAUQUAN: The Expansion of the American People. Chap. 21. Critical Studies in American Literature: Self-Reliance. Emerson.

Required Book: Initial Studies in American Letters. Chap. 4 to page 113.

March 5—12—

In THE CHAUTAUQUAN: The Expansion of the American People. Chap. 22. A Reading Journey Through France.

Required Book: Initial Studies in American Letters. Chap. 5, pp. 136—143. Holmes.

March 12—19—

In THE CHAUTAUQUAN: The Expansion of the American People. Chap. 23. The Inner Life of U. S. Grant.

Required Books: Initial Studies in American Letters. Chap. 5, pp. 143—150. Lowell. Birds Through an Opera Glass. Introduction and Chapters 26, 27 and 11.

March 19—26—

In THE CHAUTAUQUAN: The Expansion of the American People. Chap. 24.

Required Books: Initial Studies in American Letters. Chap. 5, pp. 150—154, concluded. Birds Through an Opera Glass. Chapters 28, 39, 41, and 19.

March 26—April 2—

In THE CHAUTAUQUAN: The Expansion of the American People. Chap. 25.

Required Books: Initial Studies in American Letters. Chap. 6, pp. 156—166. Bryant and Whittier. Birds Through an Opera Glass. Chapters 8, 52 and 6.

April 2—9—

In THE CHAUTAUQUAN: The Expansion of the American People. Chap. 26. The Inner Life of Abraham Lincoln.

Required Books: Abraham Lincoln. Birds Through an Opera Glass. Chapters 1, 3, 18 and 21.



SUGGESTIVE PROGRAMS FOR LOCAL CIRCLES.

The Bird Study programs begin this month with the week ending March 19. Mrs. Bailey's notes and suggestions on the preceding pages of the Round Table should be studied carefully and consulted frequently in connection with the following programs. The work has been made quite full, for the reason that some circles may wish to specialize upon birds. Since other circles will wish to give more attention to historical and literary work, the studies in literature have been planned so as to continue throughout the year, but it will be noticed that the required readings in Professor Beers's book cover only a few pages each week. By this plan the reader is not overtaxed, no matter which aspect of the course receives special attention at the meetings of the circle.

February 26—March 5—

1. Quiz on Chapter 21 of Expansion article.

2. Roll-call: Answered by quotations from Emerson's essay on "Self-Reliance."

3. Review: Article on Secretary of State John Hay in January Review of Reviews. See also Mark Twain's references to him in McClure's Magazine for January.

4. A study of Emerson: Professor Pattee's admirable study of Emerson should be made the basis of this circle meeting. Let each member of the circle read the essay on "Self-Reliance" ten times, if possible, carrying out all suggestions as fully as may be. Make careful notes, appoint a leader for the evening, and let the essay be made the subject of diligent study. A paper edition of the first and second series of Emerson's Essays, which includes the one on "Self-Reliance," is published by Houghton, Mifflin & Co., for fifty cents.

March 5—12—

1. Roll-call: Answers to Search Questions.

2. Papers: France as a Colonizer: Algeria and Tunis, French Congo, Madagascar, East India, Tonquin. (See "French Colonial Policy." The Nation, May 12, 1898. "The French in Northern Africa," The Nation, February 11, 1897. "Facts about the Colonial Possessions of the Great Powers." McClure's Magazine, February, 1900. Macaulay's "Essay on Lord Clive," and Encyclopedia Britannica. See also introductory note to Travel Club.)

3. Pronunciation match on proper names following the Reading Journey. The plan may be varied by assigning several names to each member, who will report on the pronunciation, giving approximate location of streets and some fact about their history if possible.

4. Reading: Selection from "The Poetic Cabarets of Paris." Scribner's Magazine, January, 1900.

5. Quiz on Reading Journey article.

6. Discussion: What the World Owes to France. (See article in The Forum for November, 1899.)

March 12—19—

1. Quiz on Expansion article, Chapters 22 and 23.

2. Ten-Minute Papers: Holmes as the Poet of Special Occasions. Holmes as the Poet of Boston and its People.

3. Roll-call: Each member may be assigned a poem of O. W. Holmes, and in response to roll-call should give the story of the poem, the occasion—if any—for which it was written, and a quotation or two from it.

4. Reading: "The Boys." "The Chambered Nautilus."

BIRD STUDY SECTION.

1. Roll-call: Notes on the Birds Here Now. (See "The Winter Birds," in "A Year with the Birds," by Wilson Flagg, and Bird-Lore, December, 1899, pp. 180—184.) Let members take list of "Permanent Residents" (see "Winter Birds," in C. L. S. C. Round Table, p. 644), and hunt up all they can in field and museum, reporting (from the field) all notes taken, including notes on feeding habits, and reporting (from the museum) how forms of bill and claw are adapted to winter food supply (see "Relation of Bills and Feet to Food," C. L. S. C. Round Table, p. 644).

2. Quiz on Chapters 26, 27 and 11. (For photographs of chickadees at nest, see Bird-Lore, February, 1899, pp. 7—13; December, 1899, p. 189.)

3. Papers: Forest and Orchard Preservers. Members to report on special birds. (See Massachusetts State Board of Agriculture Bulletin No. 5, Series of 1894; Bulletin No. 3, Series of 1895; Bulletin No. 1, Series of 1898, pp. 34—40. Biological Survey, United States Department of Agriculture: Food of Woodpeckers, and Hawks and Owls, from the Standpoint of the Farmer. New Hampshire College of Agriculture: Winter Food of the Chickadee, Bulletin 54, June, 1898. Our Native Birds: How to protect and attract them to our homes, by D. Lange. Macmillan & Co. \$1.00.)

4. Reading: From "Winter Neighbors," in "Signs and Seasons," John Burroughs.
5. Poem: Emerson's "Titmouse."

March 19-26—

1. Roll-call: Reports on important current events for the month.
2. Quiz on Expansion article, and discussion of Search Questions.
3. Paper on Lowell.
4. Brief verbal reports on poems by Lowell previously assigned. Quotations should also be given.
5. Discussion: The Timrod Revival. (See article in this magazine; also paragraph in Highways and Byways.) Each member should report on that feature of the article which has most interested him.

BIRD STUDY SECTION.

1. Roll-call: Notes on the Birds Here Now. During the return of the birds each meeting should begin with field notes by members, dated lists being kept on birds reported. From these lists, by consultation with local bird men and boys, valuable local lists may be made of residents and migrants.
2. Quiz on Chapters 28, 39, 41 and 19.
3. Papers: Feeding and Taming Birds. (See C. L. S. C. Round Table, "Feeding and Attracting Birds," p. 644.) "The First Book of Birds," Miller, pp. 134-135; "Birds of Village and Field," introduction pp. 26-28; *Bird-Lore*, February, 1899, pp. 14-16; April, 1899, pp. 55-60; October, 1899, pp. 155-157; December, 1899, pp. 185-186.
4. Reading: The Tricks and Manners of a Catbird, from "Bird-Ways," Olive Thorne Miller.

March 26-April 2—

1. Roll-call: Verbal reports on topics of current interest as noted in Highways and Byways.
2. Quiz on Initial Studies.
3. Readings: Selections from Bryant.
4. Quiz on Expansion article.

BIRD STUDY SECTION.

1. Roll-call: Notes on the Birds Here Now.
2. Quiz on Chapters 8, 52 and 6.
3. Papers: Shall our Spring Hats be Trimmed with Birds? (See State Audubon Society leaflets; Nature Study leaflet, Our Common Birds, Clark University, Worcester, Mass.; "A Plea for the Protection of Our Birds," Univ. of Nebraska, Lincoln, Neb.)
4. Reading: From "Talks with Young Observers," and "Hasty Observation," in "Riverly," John Burroughs.

April 2-9—

1. Roll-call: Anecdotes about Lincoln.
2. Quiz on Required Book on Lincoln.
3. Reading: From "Harvard Commemoration Ode."
4. The Elements of True Greatness: Quotations from the poets or other writers descriptive of great men.

BIRD STUDY SECTION.

1. Roll-call: Notes on the Birds Here Now.
2. Quiz on Chapters 1, 3, 16, and 21.
3. Papers: How to Attract Birds. (See "Birds of Village and Field," introduction, pp. 20-26; Hodge's Nature Study Leaflet, Our Common Birds, pp. 22-29; Bureau of Nature Study, Cornell University, Ithaca, N. Y., The Birds and I; *Bird-Lore*, April, 1899, p. 60.)
4. Reading: From "Sharp Eyes," in "Locusts and Wild Honey," John Burroughs.



THE TRAVEL CLUB.

In connection with the following programs, members of the Travel Club will find much interesting material in "The Evolution of the Third Republic," by Coubertin; the chapter on Colonial France in "France As It Is," by André Lebon; Mrs. Latimer's "France in the Nineteenth Century," and other works which cover the later periods of French history. See also the bibliographies following the October and November Reading Journey articles. A few magazine references are given here, but nearly all small libraries have bound volumes of the leading magazines, and by means of Poole's Index many additional articles can be found. The Britannica and smaller encyclopedias will help out where other sources fail. Circles which are without library facilities of any sort, can secure single copies of the magazines referred to by sending to the offices of publication.

First week—

1. Map Study: Take the first fifty names on the list published in connection with the Reading Journey, assign several to each member, and have their location pointed out, the pronunciation correctly given and some incident connected with the street related if possible. Circles which have library facilities will find many interesting allusions in "Memorable Paris Houses," by Wilmot Harrison. (See also November bibliography.)
2. Roll-call: Quotations from famous Frenchmen.
3. Papers on the Presidents of the Third Republic: Thiers, MacMahon, Grévy, Sadi-Carnot, Casimir-Périer, Faure, Loubet.
4. Reading: The Pourboire in Danger. (*The Nation*, August 26, 1897.)
5. Quiz on the Reading Journey article.

Second week—

1. Map Study: As in previous week, taking fifty additional names.
2. Roll-call: Quotations from famous Frenchwomen.
3. Papers: French Children. (See *Century Magazine*, October, 1896. Article by Th. Bentzon, illustrated by Boutet de Monvel.) French Girls.

(See *The Outlook*, March 5, 1898, and *THE CHAUTAUQUAN*, September, 1897.) French Wives and Mothers. (See *Century Magazine*, January, 1898.) French Business Women. (See *Harper's Bazar*, July 10, 1899.) French Women Teachers. (See *Review of Reviews*, August, 1897.)

4. Reading: Victor Hugo's "Toilers of the Sea," B. III.
5. Discussion: What American women can learn from their French sisters.

Third week—

1. Map Study: As in previous weeks, taking fifty additional names.
2. Papers on France as a Colonizer: Algeria and Tunis, America, French Congo, Madagascar, East India, Tonquin. (See "French Colonial Policy," *The Nation*, May 12, 1898. "The French in North Africa," *The Nation*, February 11, 1897. Macaulay's essay on Lord Clive. Also Encyclopaedia Britannica, and introductory note above.)
3. Roll-call: Answers to Search Questions.
4. An Imaginary Journey Through Paris Today with Louis XVI., noting the changes which he would find. This might be done by several persons, each taking a separate quarter of the city.

Fourth week—

1. Map Study: As in previous weeks, taking the remaining names.
2. Papers on the Parisian Life of Berlioz, Cherubini, Chopin, Meissonier, Dumas, Rossini, Balzac and Doré. ("The Paris of Honoré de Balzac," *Scribner's Magazine*, November, 1899. "Memorable Paris Houses," Harrison. See also Poole's Index for magazine articles on these men.)
3. Roll-call: Incidents relating to famous Parisians.

(See "An Englishman in Paris." Daudet's "Thirty Years of Paris." "French Poets and Novelists," Henry James. "Studies in Paris," De Amicis.)

4. Reading: Selection from "The Poetic Cabarets of Paris," *Scribner's Magazine*, January, 1900.
5. Discussion: What the World Owes to France. Let each member be provided with some facts on this subject. (See article in *The Forum* for November, 1899.)

REVIEW QUESTIONS ON "INITIAL STUDIES IN AMERICAN LETTERS."

(C. L. S. C. Required Book.)

CHAPTER V. THE CAMBRIDGE SCHOLARS. (CONCLUDED.)

13. What different forms of literature were attempted by Oliver Wendell Holmes and with what success? 14. For what purpose was "Old Ironsides" written? 15. What qualities characterized his society verse? 16. Mention some of his more serious works of fine poetic quality. 17. How did his position as a man of science affect his views of the transcendental movement? 18. What was his attitude toward the abolition movement? 19. What important works did he contribute to *The Atlantic Monthly*? 20. What is the plan and character of "The Autocrat of the Breakfast Table"? 21. How did Holmes combine scientific theories with fiction? 22. What is Lowell's position among American poets and critics? 23. What general characteristics of his poetry are in marked contrast to those of Longfellow? 24. What was the purpose of the first series of "The Biglow Papers"? 25. What was their character? 26. What contributions did Lowell make to the anti-slavery literature? 27. What is the special merit of the "Vision of Sir Launfal"? 28. What circumstances called forth the second series of "Biglow Papers"? 29. What place has the Harvard "Commemoration Ode" taken in English verse? 30. What important editorial positions did Lowell occupy? 31. What professional and diplomatic positions? 32. What is the nature of much of his prose? 33. How does he rank as a critic? 34. What contributions to historical literature have been made by Prescott? 35. Under what limitations did he work? 36. What qualities have given to Bancroft's work an important place in American history? 37. In what respects does Motley excel among American historians?

38. What great services to American history have been rendered by Parkman? 39. What "Cambridge scholars" contributed to the political oratory of the anti-slavery struggle?

CHAPTER VI. LITERATURE IN THE CITIES. (IN PART.)

1. How has the establishment of magazines like *Harper's*, *The Atlantic* and the *Century* affected American literature? 2. How has literature suffered from the absence of an international copyright law? 3. Why was literature naturally allied with journalism at this time? 4. What important editorial position did Bryant occupy and how was his influence felt through this medium? 5. What are his striking qualities as a poet? 6. What aspects of nature has he described with great charm? 7. What important service has he rendered as a translator? 8. Mention some of his most important poems. 9. How does "Thanatopsis" rank as a specimen of English blank verse? 10. How do Lowell and Bryant compare in their attitude toward nature? 11. How did the local setting of Bryant's poetry differ from that of Whittier? 12. What poets exerted a strong influence upon Whittier? 13. What were Whittier's educational advantages? 14. What were his first experiences in editorial work? 15. How had Whittier's training influenced him against slavery? 16. What services did he render to the anti-slavery cause? 17. What is the character of his poetry at this time? 18. What poems embody his love for the home life of New England? 19. Mention some of his poems which deal with legends of New England. 20. How were his educational limitations shown in his poetry? 21. What are some of his greatest poems of faith?

NOTES ON "INITIAL STUDIES IN AMERICAN LETTERS."

P. 137. "Sodales." Comrades.

P. 140. "Orphic odes." Orpheus, a legendary poet of ancient Greece, had the power of charming with his lyre all animate and inanimate objects. There were Orphic societies and Orphic mysteries both connected with the cult of Bacchus and concerning themselves with the philosophy of life and death in nature.

"The Sphinx," by Ralph Waldo Emerson.

P. 147. "Parnassus." A mountain ridge in Greece near Athens, celebrated as the haunt of Apollo, the Muses and the Nymphs, the home of music and poetry. "Goethe." Johann Wolfgang von Goethe (1749-1832). A famous German poet, dramatist and prose writer; the greatest name in the German literature.

"Faust." A tragedy by Goethe, personifying humanity tempted and disquieted, but at length groping its way to light.

"Ihr naht euch wieder, schwankende Gestalten!"

"Again ye come, ye hovering forms!"

"Auf wiedersehen." Till we meet again.

P. 163. "Tyrteus." A famous Greek poet of Attica in the seventh century B. C. According to a tradition, the Spartans, who were at war with the Messenians, were commanded by the oracle to take a leader from among the Athenians. The latter, not wishing to aid the Spartans, sent Tyrteus, a lame schoolmaster of no reputation; but by his songs he so inspired his followers that they obtained the victory.

"Körner." (1791-1813.) A German lyric poet who died on the battle-field at Gadebusch in Mecklenburg. Many of his poems were written in the field.

P. 164. "Laus Deo." Praise to God.

P. 166. "Doric." An early form of Greek architecture characterized by strength and simplicity.

REVIEW QUESTIONS ON "BIRDS THROUGH AN OPERA GLASS."

(C. L. S. C. Required Book.)

CHAPTERS XXVI., XXVII. AND XI.

1. Describe the appearance of the hairy woodpecker. 2. What are his characteristic methods of working? 3. How is he affected by the approach of winter? 4. How is the downy woodpecker to be distinguished from his hairy cousin? 5. Describe their peculiar use of feet, bill and tail. 6. Where do they commonly make their nests? 7. Where is the chickadee usually found? 8. Describe his appearance. 9. How is his bill shaped and why? 10. Where is the chickadee in the habit of nesting? 11. Describe the nest. 12. What is the natural food of woodpeckers and chickadees?

CHAPTERS XXVIII., XXXIX., XII. AND XIX.

1. How does the nuthatch get his name? 2. By what other names is he known? Why? 3. To what group of birds does he belong? 4. What other name is given to the juncos? 5. What are their social habits? 6. What sort of localities do they choose for nesting? 7. What is their ordinary diet? 8. Describe their appearance. 9. Compare the junco and the snowbird. 10. Why are the latter known as "bad weather birds"? 11. Why is their sojourn with us usually short? 12. Describe the coloring of the blue jay. 13. How do his voice and actions coincide? 14. With what other birds is he grouped? Why?

CHAPTERS VIII., LII. AND VI.

1. Describe the partridge. 2. What other name does he bear? 3. What is a gallinaceous bird? 4.

What is his method of "drumming"? 5. What is the legend of the crossbill? 6. How does his bill illustrate adaptation? 7. Where do they commonly nest? 8. What colors have the different members of this family? 9. What is the true color of the blackbird? 10. Why is he called "keel-tailed"? 11. What other bird is his acknowledged foe? 12. What localities does he select for nest building? 13. What is his ordinary method of locomotion?

CHAPTERS I., III., XVIII. AND XXI.

1. What traits of the robin make him one of our best known birds? 2. Describe his color and that of his family. 3. What is his method of nest building? 4. Describe his flight and song. 5. What is meant by "robin roosts"? 6. At what time of the year does the bluebird make his appearance? 7. What is the character of his note? 8. Describe his appearance. 9. How are the robin and bluebird contrasted in literature? 10. What are the characteristic nesting places of the bluebird? 11. How can bluebirds be attracted? 12. What are the "sparrow traits" as shown in the song sparrow? 13. Describe his personal appearance. 14. What is the nature of his song? 15. Where does the song sparrow usually build? 16. What is the characteristic color of the flycatchers? 17. How does John Burroughs describe them? 18. Describe the appearance of the phoebe. 19. How are the bills of the flycatchers adapted to their needs? 20. What are the building habits of the phoebe?



NEWS FROM THE CIRCLES.

BEYOND THE MISSISSIPPI.

The Epworth Circle of Los Angeles, one of the strongest circles in southern California, has been conducting its work this year with excellent results. New members have been added, while the Class of 1902 also takes an important share of the work. The Susanville Chautauquans are giving especial attention to the French Reading Journey and are making the most of the opportunity for special training in French pronunciation by securing a French pronouncing dictionary. We doubt not they will find the clue to the labyrinth without great difficulty, as the edition recommended (see Question Box) will help even an American tongue to acquire something of the French twist. The Houghton and Williamson Circles of Oakland have varied their exercises by an interesting lecture on Chautauqua given by Mrs. Steele, the delegate from the Pacific Coast to Chautauqua last summer. A circle of special course students in Seattle, who are using the C. L. S. C. Shakespeare studies, report their work on "Hamlet" as intensely interesting. They plan to take up next "The

Comedy of Errors." C. L. S. C. work in Colorado is likely to receive a new impulse from the Texas-Colorado Chautauqua, which is planning some important educational features for the coming season.

The Columbian Circle of South Lincoln, Nebraska, sends an account of a special meeting at the home of Dr. and Mrs. Huntington. "The Expansion of the American People," and "Studies in American Letters," formed the study part of the program, which was supplemented by selections from "Richard Carvel." The response to roll-call taxed the Spartan qualities of the circle, as each member was required to sum up the biography of a Revolutionary hero in a single sentence. The East Lincoln Circle also contemplates a special meeting soon, from which an interesting report may be expected. Carthage, Missouri, is especially strong in circles for a town of its size. The "Leon H. Vincent Circle" was organized in 1897, the "Ianthé" in 1892, and the "Vincent Post Graduate Circle" in 1896. These were all the outgrowth of the original circle founded in 1882, and still known as the "Local C. L. S. C." This circle, which has

shown much ardor in its work for the present year, has included among its special meetings a lecture on Socialism, which was followed by a stimulating and profitable discussion.

The Chautauquans at Rockford, Iowa, have naturally taken a good deal of interest in the Reading Journey, as one of their number is planning to visit London and Paris. Many former members have recently come into the circle for the opportunity of reviewing American literature. Osceola and Des Moines Circles keep up steady progress. St. Luke's Circle, at Dubuque, which started out bravely in the fall, has recently concluded its work in Socialism under most able leadership, and is now taking up Initial Studies. Different leaders are assigned for each subject, and by this plan freshness and variety of methods are assured. The C. L. S. C. of Leavenworth, Kansas, nearly ten years old, is this year devoting especial attention to Shakespeare.

The circle at Albert Lea, Minn., which has had an intermission of several weeks, is now hard at work again, and at Duluth a discussion of Socialism under the auspices of the circle has attracted much attention.

THE CENTRAL STATES.

The Madison, Wisconsin, Chautauquans report progress for the first time this year. The circle is nearly four years old and its close connection with the Monona Lake Assembly gives it both advantages and responsibilities which it has not been slow to improve. A new circle from Lake Orion, Michigan, is also in the territory of a "Chautauqua." Circles at Algonac and Benton Harbor report steady accessions to their membership. Terre Haute, Indiana, has a new circle, while at Elkhart the Chautauquans have been carrying on their work since 1878. At Nelsonville, Ohio, the circle have found great enjoyment in the study of "Evangeline," following out suggestions made in the January CHAUTAUQUAN. Nelsonville is situated in southeastern Ohio on the Hocking river, a region peculiarly interesting from its Indian relics. Three miles south of the town is the famous Elm Tree Rock, twenty feet high and forty feet in diameter, from out of the center of which springs a gigantic elm tree. This tree is now in its declining years, but in the time of its strength it split the great rock with the "mechanical nicety of a stone mason." There is, of course, an Indian legend connected with the spot; four miles south

another Indian rendezvous known as Wolf's Plains is in the center of an interesting mound region.

At Fremont, Ohio, the interest aroused by Professor Sparks's lectures on Expansion has resulted in a new circle, which has taken the name of the lecturer as its patronymic. The members of the McPherson Circle of the same town are giving particular attention just now to the critical studies in literature in THE CHAUTAUQUAN. Circles in Cleveland are making extensive use of the public library, the assistants there reporting a great demand for books relating to the Reading Journey. A circle at the Euclid Avenue Presbyterian Church, which is taking the French work only, calls itself the "Book Club." Leadership in study is assigned to different members, and the circle has pursued its work with much zeal. Search Questions have been looked up, books discussed and reviewed, and selections bearing upon the subjects of study presented. The secretary writes:

"Finding that we were all at sea without a map to fix localities in our minds, we procured one of the Chautauqua maps of Paris. A member was detailed to give a map lesson at the following meeting. She pointed out each street, building, and other place of interest mentioned in THE CHAUTAUQUAN articles, or brought to our notice in outside reading. Since then we have followed up this exercise at each meeting, feeling abundantly repaid for this line of study in the added interest which attaches to any item we come across relating to Paris—for now we can locate it in our mind's eye. One of our members has been in Paris, and she adds bits of personal experience in connection with the different points of interest, all of which gives reality to the cold facts gathered from the printed page. She brought back a large number of pictures of places she visited; these she brings to the class and we all enjoy them greatly. Two of our members are in the south spending the winter—one in Florida and the other in Mexico—and we keep in touch with them by exchanging letters. They are as enthusiastic over Paris and its study as are we who remain at home."

NEW YORK.

The Brooklyn Chautauqua Union held its first social gathering at the Central Presbyterian Church on the 14th of December. Our correspondent writes: "A boat race on Chautauqua lake last summer suggested a

new feature for our socials,—a literary contest between the circles, the prize to go to the circle, not the individual, all circle members working together to answer as many questions as possible in the time allowed, about twenty minutes." The prize was a silver loving-cup to be held by the successful circle until the next social. The winning circle was the Alumni, and as this is a strong organization, and likely to be tenacious of its honors, the socials of the union will probably see some stout contests in their literary arena. The forty-three questions, which proved veritable Sphinx riddles to some of the circles, we give here:

PRIZE BIOGRAPHICAL CONTEST.

1. What founder of a colony was confined in the Tower of London on account of his religious belief?
2. Who edited the first Bible printed in the new world?
3. Who was the only founder of a colony who lived to see the independence of the United States?
4. Who said to the missionary Eliot, "I care no more for your teachings than for that button on your coat"?
5. What early reformer and preacher was called the "Apostle of Toleration"?
6. Who surveyed and mapped the coast of New England and gave it that name?
7. Who discovered the variation of the magnetic needle?
8. Who said, after signing the Declaration of Independence, "We must all hang together or we shall all hang separately"?
9. Whom did Lord Byron call "The Cincinnatus of the West"?
10. Who said, when he voted for the Declaration of Independence, "Sink or swim, live or die, survive or perish, I give my heart and hand to this vote"?
11. Who said, "The people only have a right to tax the people"?
12. Who first signed the Declaration of Independence?
13. Who was called by the Indians, "the chief who never slept"?
14. Who first hoisted an American naval flag on board an American frigate?
15. What United States Senator was called the "Ironhearted man"?
16. What revolutionary statesman said, "Reformers make opinions and opinions make parties"?
17. What president first acted on the motto that "To the victors belong the spoils"?
18. Who sent from his flagship the famous dispatch to Gen. Harrison, "We have met the enemy and they are ours"?
19. Who was called the "Father of the Constitution"?
20. Whose book was the first copyrighted in the United States?
21. What Indian chief had a name meaning "Shooting Star"?
22. Who declared that he would rather be right than be president of the United States?
23. What descendant of Pocahontas became president of the United States?
24. Who was called the "Apostle of Nullification"?
25. Who said "One country, one constitution, one destiny"?
26. Who was the first president who had not been a British subject?
27. Who was called "Old Bullion" for his advocacy of gold and silver currency?
28. Who was the first to receive the appointment of admiral of the navy?
29. Who denounced the union as "a covenant with death, an agreement with hell," because it recognized slavery?
30. Who uttered the remarkable injunction, "Never be haughty to the humble nor humble to the haughty"?
31. What president is buried under a towering pile of granite and bronze at Springfield, Illinois?
32. Who first hoisted the American flag on a peak of the Rocky mountains?
33. What noted orator was sold as a slave to a Baltimore ship builder?
34. What general said, "War is cruelty, you

cannot refine it"? 35. What president inaugurated civil service reform? 36. What Confederate general instituted a Sunday-school for his slaves, which continued a generation after his death? 37. Who was the last sovereign on the American continent? 38. Who first applied the epigram "contraband of war" to the slaves? 39. Who received from Queen Victoria the first message sent over the Atlantic cable? 40. Who was the founder of the present system of national currency? 41. Who said "I cannot afford to waste my time making money"? 42. What poet does Lowell call "a Leyden jar always full charged"? 43. Who first provided parlors and a kitchen in his church for social entertainment?

At Peekskill a new circle is reported. Its name is the "Shrub Oak," which probably has some special local significance that does not appear in the report received. The meetings of the circle, which are held at private houses, evidently combine study and social life in rational proportions.

The circle at the Centenary Methodist Episcopal Church in Binghamton, already in its third year, is a remarkably prosperous institution. It has been fortunate in the character of its workers from the outset, and the plane of its work has been kept on a high level. The very excellent report recently received says: "In this circle there are about forty members, nearly three times the membership of last year, and the interest is so great that few are ever absent from the weekly gatherings. One thing that helps the attendance is the division of the membership into sides, the competition being for marks based on the answer to roll-call, the work done, etc. Evidently, though, the chief attraction is the thirst for knowledge. Remarkable progress was made in the study of Socialism. The ladies at first were glad to hear the men discuss this subject, but later they gained so much confidence and became so thoroughly informed and so pronounced in their views pro and con, that the men often had the pleasure and profit of being listeners while the women talked; and now both men and women are equally engrossed with the study of American Letters."

The influence which the circle is exerting in the community is evinced by the program just announced of the Winter Chautauqua, to be held in Binghamton during the month of February. Rev. Newell Dwight Hillis, President John Henry Barrows and other able speakers will be present.

PENNSYLVANIA.

Special mention must be made of the work of the C. L. S. C. at Warren, which has had a long and honorable career, and this year has been taking the C. L. S. C.

Special Course in French History. The year's program is published in a very tasteful little booklet bound with a violet cord. Hand-painted violets form a feature of the cover design, which is thoroughly artistic. System and variety have been carefully considered in the arrangement of the programs, which are so admirably planned that we publish two which may be considered typical.

December 1.

Quotations—"A Gentleman of France," Stanley Weyman.
History of French Painting.
Italian War.—The Claim of Charles VIII. to the Throne of Naples and his Motive in the War. Result to France.
Women of the Valois Court.—Catherine de Medici. Margaret of Anjou. Catherine of Courtney. Their Contemporaries.
Paris—The Louvre.
Current Events.

March 23.

Quotations—Paine.
Second Republic—Work of Lamartine. Coup d'Etat.
Crimean War. Causes of French Defeat in the Franco-Prussian War.
French Political Leaders.—Incidents about Each. Forms of Government.
Paris—Café and Street Life.
Current Events.

At West Pittston is an energetic circle with a present membership of twenty-two, though not as many of these are enrolled in regular C. L. S. C. classes as we hope may be the case later. The class spirit has for years proven an important feature of C. L. S. C. work, and every member who attends a Chautauqua assembly realizes how much more the course means when there is class allegiance as well. The West Pittston Chautauquans are doing good solid work and taking a practical interest in current events also. The Elm Park Circle of Scranton offers a varied program at each of its regular meetings which are largely attended. Features of a recent program were a paper on Blennerhasset, and reading and discussion of Washington's farewell address. The Pennsylvania Chautauqua, which has a wide influence throughout eastern Pennsylvania, is taking active steps in the direction of organizing circles throughout its territory. Active circles have recently been formed at Steelton and Bath; Annville is rallying its forces and systematic efforts are being put forth to reach and interest the small communities where no circles exist. At Manheim three new members are forming a "triangle," and the Erie circle reports a prosperous state of things. A large circle of 1903's at Edwardsdale, Luzerne county, have just re-

ported and will be heartily welcomed by the goodly fellowship of Pennsylvania Chautauquans as well as by their comrades in the world-wide circle.

NEW ENGLAND.

The circle at East Corinth, Maine, which calls itself the "Corinthian Club," was reorganized in October with a membership of twenty-one. The secretary reports: "We are taking French history in connection with 'The Reading Journey Through France.' We have been favored with a very interesting and profitable talk on Paris by one who has spent much time there in study. Our next program promises to be of interest. It consists of a study of Victor Hugo and his works, Paris customs and house-keeping, a map drill, Search Questions and the Reading Journey." A new circle at Monmouth bears the name of Cochnewagen. It has affiliated with the Maine Federation of Women's Clubs. A straightforward report from the circle at Charlestown, Massachusetts, shows how these Chautauquans are letting their light shine: "The 'Trinity Chautauqua Circle,' of Charlestown, Massachusetts, had the great pleasure of listening to a fine address on 'Socialism' by Rev. Philo Sprague, author of 'Socialism in the Church,' at their meeting on January 8. Friends of the members were also invited to hear the address, at the close of which an opportunity was given to ask questions, and in this way many points were made plainer to those who had been reading on the subject. On January 22, an address was given by a member of Harvard University on 'Some Events in French History.' At the close of the meeting the Search Questions in the December and January issues of THE CHAUTAUQUAN were discussed." At Derby, Connecticut, the circle recently held an open meeting, inviting the neighboring circle of Ansonia to be their guests. Fifty-five members gathered in the church parlors, and a varied program was presented based upon the lesson for the week. American topics took precedence, but the Reading Journey aspect of the course was represented by an interesting paper on the Louvre. The Derby Circle have made arrangements for a course of four lectures upon American authors to be given by Mr. Leon H. Vincent early in the new year. At Redding, Connecticut, the famous Joel Barlow Circle, many of whose members have graduated, has reorganized, enrolled new recruits, and while some of the older members are specializing, they still take

MARCH

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The CHAUTAUQUAN



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 OF BEAUTY SO GENTLY
 THAT YOUTH LINGERS
 ON THE FACE OF AGE
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Aside from the regular four years' course of the C. L. S. C., which includes THE CHAUTAUQUAN and certain prescribed books, Chautauqua provides supplementary courses in a great variety of subjects for C. L. S. C. graduates, women's clubs, and other organizations. Among its history courses the following will be found very timely:—

French History, arranged by Ellen Scott Davison, A. B. This course includes the following books, and for a fee of fifty cents the student is provided with a pamphlet of suggestions, questions and recommended books:

The Growth of the French Nation. George B. Adams. Louis XIV. Hassall. (Heroes of the Nations.)

The First Napoleon. John C. Ropes.

France in the Nineteenth Century. Mrs. E. W. Latimer.

Two Courses in American History are offered, for either of which a study pamphlet as above may be secured for the fee of fifty cents. The course has been arranged under the direction of Prof. H. B. Adams of Johns Hopkins University and Prof. J. A. Woodburn of Indiana University.

FIRST COURSE.

COLONIAL AND REVOLUTIONARY PERIODS.

The Colonies. Thwaites. \$1.25.

The War of Independence. John Fiske. 60 cents.

Patrick Henry. Moses Coit Tyler. \$1.00.

The Critical Period of American History. John Fiske. \$1.60.

Civil Government. John Fiske. \$1.00.

SECOND COURSE.

CONSTITUTIONAL AND NATIONAL PERIOD.

History of American Politics. Johnston. 90 cents.

Henry Clay. Carl Schurz. \$2.20.

Abraham Lincoln. Carl Schurz. 90 cents.

History of the United States under the Constitution. Schouler. Vol. V. \$2.25.

Modern European History, under the direction of Prof. H. B. Adams and Mr. G. Briggs Lynes of Johns Hopkins University.

History of Modern Times. Victor Duruy. \$1.60.

The Era of the Protestant Revolution. Seebohm. (Epoch Series.) 85 cents.

European History. Wakeman. (Periods of European History.) \$1.40.

Revolutionary and Napoleonic Era. Rose. (Cambridge Historical Series.) \$1.25.

Greek History and Literature, under the direction of Prof. Martin L. D'Ooge of the University of Michigan.

Students' History of Greece. Smith. \$1.25.

A Primer of Greek Literature. Jebb. 50 cents.

A History of Greek Literature. Jevons. \$2.50.

The Odyssey. An English Translation in Rhythmic Prose. Palmer. \$2.00.

A Day in Athens with Socrates (Select Dialogues of Plato). Cloth, \$1.00; paper, 50 cents.

The Tragedies of Sophocles. Translated by E. H. Plumptre. \$1.50.

Other courses in literature, science and travel are to be found in the C. L. S. C. Handbook of Special Courses, which can be secured by sending two cent stamp to

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The Century Dictionary.

The Century Dictionary and Cyclopedia is the latest, greatest and most perfect library in existence. The publishers wish to interest Chautauquan readers in this magnificent reference library of the world's knowledge. If you will be careful to state you saw this announcement in THE CHAUTAUQUAN Magazine, you will receive, free of charge, a book of specimen pages, sample map in colors, etc.; also instructions as to how to join the Club now forming, whose members will be able to obtain this great work at half prices, payment to be made in small monthly instalments—a remarkable opportunity to secure a great work. Address the Wanamaker Century Club, New York City, and be careful to state that you saw this announcement in THE CHAUTAUQUAN.

Art Studies.

For a short time we will send for only 25 cents, to any one mentioning THE CHAUTAUQUAN, a copy of the Art Interchange, containing two design supplements and two superb color plates, Dogwood and Violets and a Landscape. The two color pictures alone sell for \$1.00, and to secure them in this special offer you must state you saw this announcement in THE CHAUTAUQUAN. See large, illustrated advertisement in the December issue, page XXIII. Illustrated catalogue of over 200 subjects free. Address the Art Interchange, 9 West 11th Street, New York City.

The Warner Library.

An interesting booklet giving specimen pages and illustrations, including full-page portraits of many famous authors, will be sent, free of charge, to any CHAUTAUQUAN reader who is interested in the literature of the world and the order in which it should be read. To obtain this booklet you must be careful to state you saw this announcement in THE CHAUTAUQUAN and address The Magazine Association, 142 Fifth Ave., New York City.

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The Youth's Companion.

More than 200 distinguished men and women—Soldiers, Sailors, Statesmen, Scholars, Travelers and Story-Writers, will help to enrich the Youth's Companion for 1900. Those who subscribe now sending this slip or the name of this magazine with \$1.75, the price of a year's subscription, will receive all the issues of The Youth's Companion for the remaining weeks of 1899 free from the time of subscription, and then all the issues for the 52 weeks of the new year, until January 1, 1901. This offer includes the gift of the New Companion calendar for 1900—the most beautiful one ever presented by The Companion. Address The Youth's Companion, Boston, Mass.

Home School and Church Entertainer.

In the way of entertainment for the home, the school, or the church, the inventive genius of the nineteenth century has produced nothing so wonderful, so practical, and in all respects satisfactory as the Gramophone, the most wonderful, the most novel, delightful, and intellectual entertainer. A paper recently referred to it as the greatest contribution made by science to the world's entertainment.

Printed matter, etc., will be sent to any CHAUTAUQUAN reader if care is taken to state in letter that this announcement was seen in THE CHAUTAUQUAN Magazine. Address National Gramophone Co., 874 Broadway, New York.

THE CHAUTAUQUAN and so are interested in the work of the undergraduates. The Edgewood Circle of Providence, Rhode Island, recently closed their study of Socialism with a review of the leading thoughts of the book and individual opinions of the members. The circle meetings, which are held each alternate Tuesday evening at the free library building, are open to all residents of Edgewood. The interest of the circle in current events has led them to arrange for a course of lectures on the South Sea Islands by Mrs. Emma Shaw Colcleugh.

THE SOUTH.

Our first report this month from Texas comes from Waco. It reads: "A circle of ten members has recently been organized. The interest is growing and a membership of fifteen is anticipated. We now meet twice a week to make up for lost time. Much enthusiasm is shown in the work." The secretary of the Ladonia Circle in a business letter incidentally remarks, "Our circle is doing fine work." At Okolona, Mississippi, "The Ladies' Book Club," now ten years old, took up in 1897 the C. L. S. C. course. They have grappled valiantly this year with the Search Questions and made extensive use of reference books in their work. They are beginning their study of local history by one of the most valuable of methods, gathering facts from the early settlers of their town. This is something which every circle can do, and by having such reports authenticated and typewritten can lay the foundations for a historical society, or add valuable material to records already begun. The Okolona Circle is a very live one, and we hope to hear of further developments in its local history studies. The Selma, Alabama, Chautauquans are an enthusiastic band. They write: "We are charmed with the magazine this year and are studying the Required Reading from

month to month with great interest. We have enjoyed the Search Questions and are so glad you intend giving us the answers. We are gratified to find that we had solved correctly so many of the questions on France. On February 27 we shall have a special extra meeting commemorative of Lanier, Lowell and Longfellow. The regular lesson requires an entire afternoon and we take these memorial days on special dates." This circle belongs to the Alabama State Federation, and the leader, Mrs. Jarvis, recently contributed to *Woman's Work*, the organ of the federation, a very comprehensive and entertaining account of these "Nineteenth Century" Chautauquans. As the name suggests, many of the members belong to the class of 1900 and are planning a trip to Chautauqua for graduation this summer. The Dixie Circle of Greenwood, South Carolina, moves on prosperously and reports more people interested in Chautauqua work than ever before. The leader is finding good use for the recent article in THE CHAUTAUQUAN on "How Life in a Country Town Was Made Social." A new circle is reported from Henderson, North Carolina. It has been formed under most auspicious circumstances and the members are so enthusiastic that they talk of starting another among some of the young people. Further news of their movements is anticipated. In Baltimore the literary department of the Epworth League of the First Methodist Episcopal Church is taking up the C. L. S. C. course. As the church is connected with the Woman's College of Baltimore, the circle has abundant facilities for lectures from that source and also from Johns Hopkins University. In a university city the outside attractions are many, but the circle is doing creditable work, and its members appreciate the value of a definite, systematic plan which enables them to conserve their strength in spite of many literary distractions.



ANSWERS TO SEARCH QUESTIONS ON "THE EXPANSION OF THE AMERICAN PEOPLE."

FEBRUARY.

1 and 2. Founded by a colony of Americans under a grant from the Spanish government. They crossed the river and founded a town which they named in honor of the capital of Spain. It was nearly destroyed by earthquakes in 1811. 3. Girard was made banker by the French refugee planters at Philadelphia. Beginnings of his fortune. 4. Napoleon had been made consul for life in 1802. It is probable that he already contemplated proclaiming himself emperor, which he did two years later, and that the sale of Louisiana was a prior test of his strength and a warning to his associ-

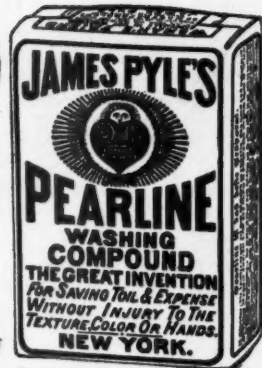
ates in power. 5. Some tribes removed voluntarily after the War of 1812, but the first emigration at government expense took place in 1826, upon recommendation of President Monroe in his message of January 27, 1825. 6. Some had been sent from what is now Texas, and Jefferson was much interested in natural history. 7. From the battle of New Orleans, which took place January 8, 1815. 8. It was a scheme originated in Paris in 1716, by John Law, a Scotchman, to colonize the Mississippi valley. It caused vast speculation in France and ruined many people. 9. Probably the similarity in guttural sounds. 10. In the dissolution of Spanish colonial empire, Francis Miranda,

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a native of Caracas, made an expedition from the United States to attempt the freedom of Venezuela. He was captured and died in a dungeon in Cadiz. 11. William Blount was expelled from the United States Senate on a charge of conspiring to deliver New Orleans to the English. 12. His action was approved by the administration through the efforts of Secretary of State Adams, and sustained by Congress although attacked by Clay. 13. The larger part is the old boundary line between the United States and the Spanish East Florida. West of the Perdido river began the Spanish West Floridas. 14. It is in dispute but generally accepted to mean a native descended from the early French settlers. It has been broadened by usage to include descendants of French or Spanish parents or any native French-speaking white person.

JANUARY.

1. A treaty made in 1768 at Fort Stanwix, defining the line between the settlements and the Indian territory. 2. A great camp-meeting and religious revival in 1800. 3. Feb. 10, 1807, Jefferson signed the bill creating the coast survey. 4. Lower peninsula of Michigan and western New York. 5. In western Pennsylvania. 6. Seven cents a gallon. 7. The name adopted by the whisky distillers under which they threatened persons who favored the payment of the tax on whisky. 8. Eastern Pennsylvania. A small amount is also found in Rhode Island and Colorado. 9. Article I, section 8, clause 18. 10. Hamilton believed the nation had the right under this clause to assume the state debts. Jefferson disagreed. Hamilton wanted the national capital at the north. Jefferson wanted it at Washington. Hamilton yielded to Jefferson in the location of the capital, and Jefferson agreed to the assumption of state debts. 11. Letters signed "X. Y. Z." and sent by the French emissaries of Talleyrand in 1798, suggesting that France be offered bribes to discontinue her attacks on American shipping due to the trouble over Jay's treaty with England. 12. During the excitement of the threatened war with France in 1798. 13. 5,308,483. 14. Eighteen miles west of Baltimore. 15. Philadelphia 65,000. New York 60,000. Boston 25,000. Baltimore 13,500. 16. July 31, 1790, the United States issued Patent No. 1 to Samuel Hopkins, for making pot and pearl ashes. Only three other patents were issued the same year. 17. Because the isthmus at that point runs very nearly east and west.

DECEMBER.

1. Where was the French Fort Le Presque Isle? On Lake Erie, near the present site of Erie, Pennsylvania. 2. In which state is the density of population greatest? Why? Rhode Island. Great manufacturing section. 3. In which state least? Why? Nevada. A mining region where some of the mines have been worked out. 4. Which is the more densely populated, Wisconsin or Virginia? Virginia. 5. Where was the center of population of the United States in the census of 1890? Twenty miles east of Columbus, Indiana. 6. Are there more men than women in the United States? A million and a half more men. 7. Which city has the largest proportion of foreign-born? New York and San Francisco, each with 42 per cent. 8. How does Greater New York compare in size with other great cities of the world? Two-thirds the size of London. Second city in the world in respect to size. 9. What is the proportion of foreign-born in your town? ———. 10. Of the foreign-born population, which nationality has the most? Germans. 11. Where are the Scandinavian

Americans chiefly found and why? In Wisconsin, Minnesota, Iowa, the Dakotas, and Nebraska. Because they prefer the cooler temperature. 12. Where the Irish? Largely in New England and New York. 13. Where the Russians and Poles? New York and Chicago. 14. What was a "redemptioneer"? An emigrant who, in lieu of passage money, permitted the captain of the ship which brought him to America to sell his services to some planter for a certain period, usually from three to five years. 15. What was the lost colony of St. Louis? The colony founded by La Salle in 1685 on Matagorda bay, Texas, under the impression that it was the western mouth of the Mississippi. While making an ineffectual effort to find the Mississippi, La Salle was assassinated by some of his followers. Louis XIV. refused to aid the colonists, and several years later the Spaniards discovered the deserted settlement, the inhabitants having disappeared, — probably murdered by the Indians. 16. What is the coat-of-arms and motto of your state? ———. 17. Who was the Cincinnatus of the West? Washington.

NOVEMBER.

1. When was Thanksgiving Day first observed in New England? In 1621. 2. What was the Bay Path? The road leading from the settlements near Massachusetts bay to the Connecticut river in the neighborhood of the town of Holyoke. 3. Who has written a romance with this title? J. G. Holland. 4. For what sum of money was Manhattan Island bought from the Indians? \$24. 5. Who was Isaac Jogues? See note on page 157 of THE CHAUTAUQUAN for November. 6. How did the fisheries influence the American navy? See answer to Question 11 in the October "Search Questions." 7. Which one of the colonies first issued paper money and for what purpose? Massachusetts in 1690, to aid in fitting out an expedition against Canada. 8. When and by whom was the first public document against slavery issued in Massachusetts? Judge Samuel Sewall, in a pamphlet issued in 1700, wherein he denounced the "wicked practice." 9. With what other professions was that of medicine sometimes united? With that of the minister and of the apothecary. 10. Who was Agnes Surriage? The daughter of a Marblehead fisherman, who married Sir Harry Frankland, collector of the Port of Boston in 1742. Her story is told in a book with the title "Agnes Surriage," by E. L. Bynner. 11. Who was the founder of the Jesuits? Ignatius Loyola. 12. Why is Virginia called the Old Dominion? Because it was the first British colony in the New World. Early documents referred to it as "The Colony and Dominion of Virginia." 13. Why did not the Huguenots settle in Canada? Because Louis XIV. did not permit them to do so. 14. What was the Western Reserve? See Expansion article in THE CHAUTAUQUAN for December. 15. How did the St. Croix river get its name? When exploring the river, Champlain gave the name St. Croix to an island in the river. The name was afterwards applied to the entire river. 16. What is a coat-of-arms? In heraldry, the device adopted as the mark of a family. In the case of a state its coat-of-arms is designated on the seal of the state. 17. How did the different states get theirs? A typical case is that of Texas. When Texas declared her independence, the first Congress of the republic provided that the seal should consist of a single star with the letters "Republic of Texas" circular on the seal. Later the form was changed to a white star of five points on an azure ground enriched by olive and live oak branches and the above words. When Texas became a state, the word "state" was substituted for "republic."

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Question Box

1. Please inform me where and at what price I can get "The Errors of the Educated," by Miss Mary C. Cook. F. L. S.

It is sold by Otto Ulbrich, bookseller, Buffalo, New York, for twenty-five cents.

2. Can you recommend a text-book on New York State History suitable for a study club? We wish a text-book that will serve rather as an outline for study than one containing a great amount of reading matter. M. B.

The best brief history of New York is "A Brief History of the Empire State" by W. Hendrick, published by C. W. Bardeen, of Syracuse, New York, for seventy-five cents.

3. Can you recommend an atlas and geography for general purposes? L. M. B.

One of the very best of modern geographies is Frye's "Complete Geography," published by Ginn & Co., of Boston, for \$1.25. This is published in special editions for various sections of the country, the difference being in the arrangement of the maps. A very excellent and complete atlas of the world is the "Globe Hand Atlas," J. G. Bartholomew. (Thomas Nelson & Sons.) \$1.00.

4. I should like a good guide-book of Paris and to know of a publication giving the French words most frequently used in conversation—something rather inexpensive. L. E. M.

Baedeker's Handbook is the most complete and satisfactory guide to Paris. (Scribner's.) Price, \$1.80. It does not give a vocabulary of French words. For your purpose you will find helpful a small volume entitled "Lee's Guide to Paris," published by Laird & Lee, of Chicago, for fifty cents. This gives a large number of current French phrases, and many items of useful information about the city, with maps, lists of streets, etc. It does not contain the historical details which form so valuable a feature of Baedeker.

5. Please recommend a good life of General Robert E. Lee. R. L. S.

A life of Robert E. Lee in the Heroes of the Nation Series, published by G. P. Putnam's Sons, written by Professor Henry A.

White of Washington and Lee College. There is also a new life of Robert E. Lee, by his son, announced by Harper & Brothers as a forthcoming publication.

6. Please recommend some good books on Nature Study to help me in interesting my boys and girls in this subject. A. O. M.

"The World's Great Farm," by Selina Gaye, will be found very helpful. "Plants and Their Children," by Mrs. William Starr Dana (American Book Co.), is well illustrated, simple and interesting. If the children are under ten, "Mother Nature's Children," by Allan Walton Gould, published by the Western Unitarian Publishing Co., of Chicago, will be found valuable. "Citizen Bird," by Mabel Osgood Wright, is bird life told in story form, and excellent to use in summer while watching the birds. "Four-footed Americans and Their Kin," by the same author, is also published by the Macmillan Company. Familiarize yourself for your own inspiration with the works of John Burroughs. They will be of great service in helping you to impart a love of nature to your children.

7. Can you recommend a book on the pronunciation of French proper names? E. F. G.

We know of no very extensive publication of French proper names aside from those given in the leading dictionaries and in the Century Dictionary of Proper Names. But there is an admirable little pronouncing dictionary of the French language by A. Mendel in the "E. F. G. Series", published in London. This gives as clearly as possible, without the aid of a teacher, the English equivalent for French words, but it does not include proper names. It can be ordered for seventy-five cents from The Chautauqua Press, Cleveland, Ohio.

8. I notice in one of the advertising pages of THE CHAUTAUQUAN that the year 1900-01 is given as the English year. Is not this a mistake? We had an English year in '98-9. K. A. J.

It is a mistake. The coming year 1900-01 will be the French-Greek year in the C. L. S. C.

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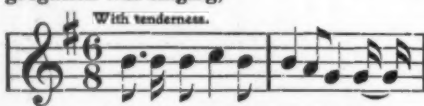
Monadnock Building, Chicago, Ill.

EMBARRASSING SITUATIONS.

THE CHAUTAUQUAN offered a prize of \$10 for "the best description of an embarrassing situation before the public, a blunder in conversation, or *faux pas* in social intercourse (200 words or less)." This competition, No. 3, closed on January 1, 1900. Seventeen states were represented in the competition, including California, Connecticut, Illinois, Iowa, Kansas, Maine, Maryland, Massachusetts, Missouri, Nebraska, New Jersey, New York, Ohio, Pennsylvania, South Carolina, Texas, and Washington. The prize is awarded to Rev. Edward Hayes, 1182 Baltimore street, Baltimore, Maryland, for the following:

AN EMBARRASSING EPISODE.

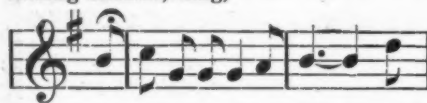
The Rev. Mr. Blank, a dignified young clergyman, easily embarrassed, and whose engagement to a worthy young lady had been recently made public, was conducting an interesting and successful series of evangelistic meetings, which had reached a number of the men, while few of the women had responded to his appeals. With this condition agitating his mind, while the great congregation was singing,



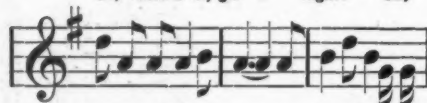
Where is my wand'ring boy to-night? etc.

the clergyman called out: "Friends, stop singing! We have been reaching the men; we must strive to win the women. We will change the hymn. Sing the chorus, applying it to the women."

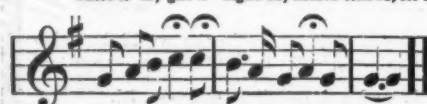
The congregation at once saw the blunder he had made, and failed to join him, while he, nothing daunted, sang,



Oh, where is my girl to - night? Oh,



where is my girl to - night? My heart o'erflows, for I



love her she knows! Oh, where is my girl to-night?

Laughter convulsed the people, the minister blushed freely, tried to explain, lost his hold upon the audience, concluded the service, and decided never to change his hymns again.



Second place of honor was given to the contribution of Professor Max Farrand, Middletown, Connecticut:

A newly-appointed instructor in psychology in one of our universities which opens its doors to all comers, being somewhat nervous over his first appearance as a teacher, had prepared his opening lecture with the greatest care. In order to show that the subject was not as dry and uninteresting as is commonly supposed, it was his intention to discuss the popular idea that the intelligence of the human animal is in proportion to the size and weight of the brain, taking, by way of illustration, the well-known facts of the smaller brain of the negro as compared with the white man and of the female as compared with the male. He had been told beforehand that he must not expect any large number of students in his advanced courses, but imagine his state of mind on entering the lecture-room to find that his class numbered but two — one woman and one negro! It is needless to add that the lecture was not delivered.



M. B. Reeser of Hollidaysburg, Pennsylvania, mailed a good story two days after the competition closed. The limit of 200 words was also exceeded, but we quote from it as follows:

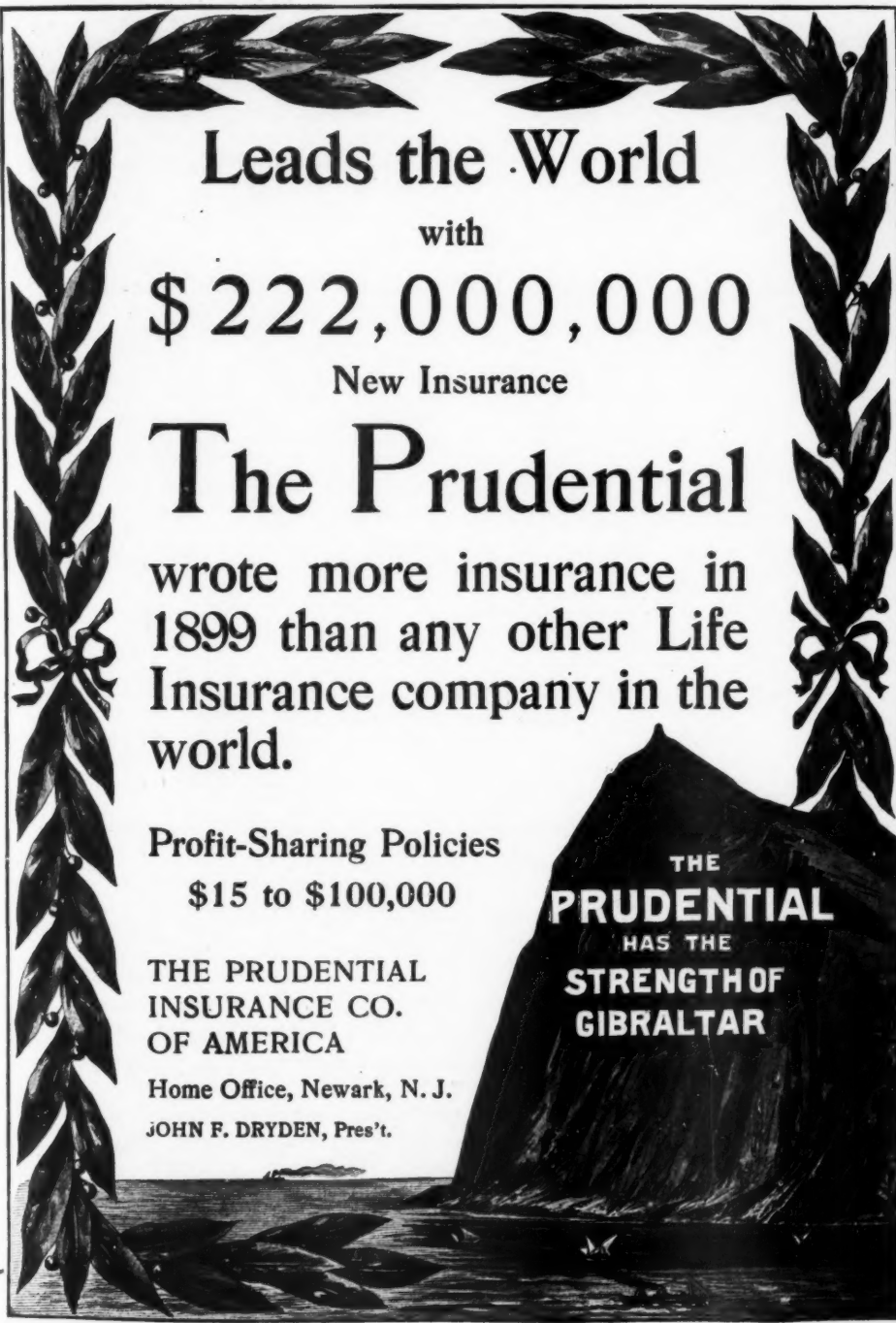
An amusing story is told of a theological student who was in the habit of preaching in the villages and in country churches near the college in which he was taking his theological course.

He started out one Sunday during his last year, in company with one of his classmates who was to assist him in the introductory services.

A large congregation was assembled, and all the services passed off in a very acceptable manner, the people seeming greatly pleased and giving the young preacher flattering and interested attention.

The sermon had progressed to the point of greatest interest, when the young minister, by way of illustration, related the stories of Lazarus and Zacchaeus.

The people listened with breathless atten-



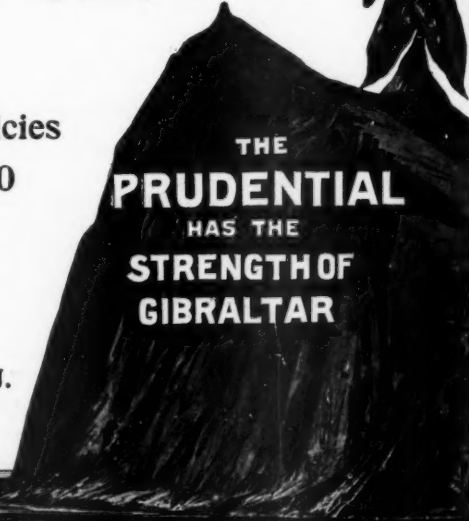
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tion, and the stillness of death reigned. How it ever came about the young man could never tell, but unfortunately in relating the stories he gave Zacchaeus Lazarus's place, and placed Lazarus in the tree.

The stories were fully told and not a sign was made by the congregation who sat so silently and kindly throughout the narration. But by some subtle intuition the young man discovered the mistake. And in the moment

of despair and abandon, with every barrier swept away, raising his right hand over his head, he waved it frantically, crying out: "Hold on, friends, hold on! the wrong man's up the tree."

The effect was electrical, and the explosion of laughter which followed, in which preachers and people joined, will never be forgotten in that quiet Ohio town.

BOOKS RECEIVED.

FORDS, HOWARD & HULBERT, NEW YORK.

- Nature's Miracles. Familiar Talks on Science. By Elisha Gray, Ph. D., LL. D. Vol. I. 4½ x 6½. .60.
The Fate of Madame La Tour. By Mrs. A. G. Pad-dock. 5 x 7½. \$1.
Sunday Afternoons for the Children. A Mother Book. By E. Frances Soule. 4½ x 7. .75.

THE MACMILLAN CO., NEW YORK.

- Theism in the Light of Present Science and Philosophy. By James Iverach, M. A., D. D. 5½ x 8. \$1.50.
The Books of Chronicles. Edited by W. E. Barnes, D. D. (The Cambridge Bible for Schools and Colleges.) 4½ x 6½. .75.
The Proverbs. Edited by The Ven. T. T. Perowne, B. D. (The Cambridge Bible for Schools and Colleges.) 4½ x 6½. .75.
The Works of Shakespeare. Edited with introductions and notes by C. H. Herford, Litt. D., Hon. Litt. D. (Vict.) Vol. X. 5 x 7½. \$1.50.
The Nervous System of the Child. By Francis Warner, M. D. 5½ x 7½. \$1.00. Bacon's Essays and Advancement of Learning. 6 x 9. \$1.50.
The Golden Horseshoe. By Stephen Bonsal. 5 x 7½. \$1.50.
Tennyson, Ruskin, Mill and Other Literary Estimates. By Frederic Harrison. 5½ x 8. \$2.00.
Statistics and Economics. By Richard Mayo-Smith, Ph. D. 6 x 9.
The Lute and Lays. By Charles Stuart Welles, M. D. 4½ x 7½. 3s. 6d.
Who's Who, 1900. 5 x 7½. \$1.75.
The Temple Edition of the Works of Jane Austen. 4 x 6. 10 vols. Leather. \$8.00.
Marmion. By Sir Walter Scott. Edited with an introduction and notes for the use of students by George B. Aiton, M. A. 4½ x 6. .25.
The Alhambra. By Washington Irving. Edited by Alfred M. Hitchcock, M. A. 4½ x 6. .25.
One Year of Sunday School Lessons for Young Children. A manual for teachers and parents. By Florence U. Palmer. 6 x 8. \$1.00.
Gleanings in Holy Fields. By Hugh Macmillan, D. D., LL. D., F. R. S. E., etc. 5 x 7½.
How Women May Earn a Living. By Helen Churchill Candee. 5 x 7. \$1.00.
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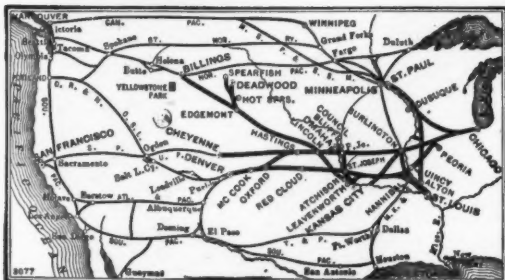


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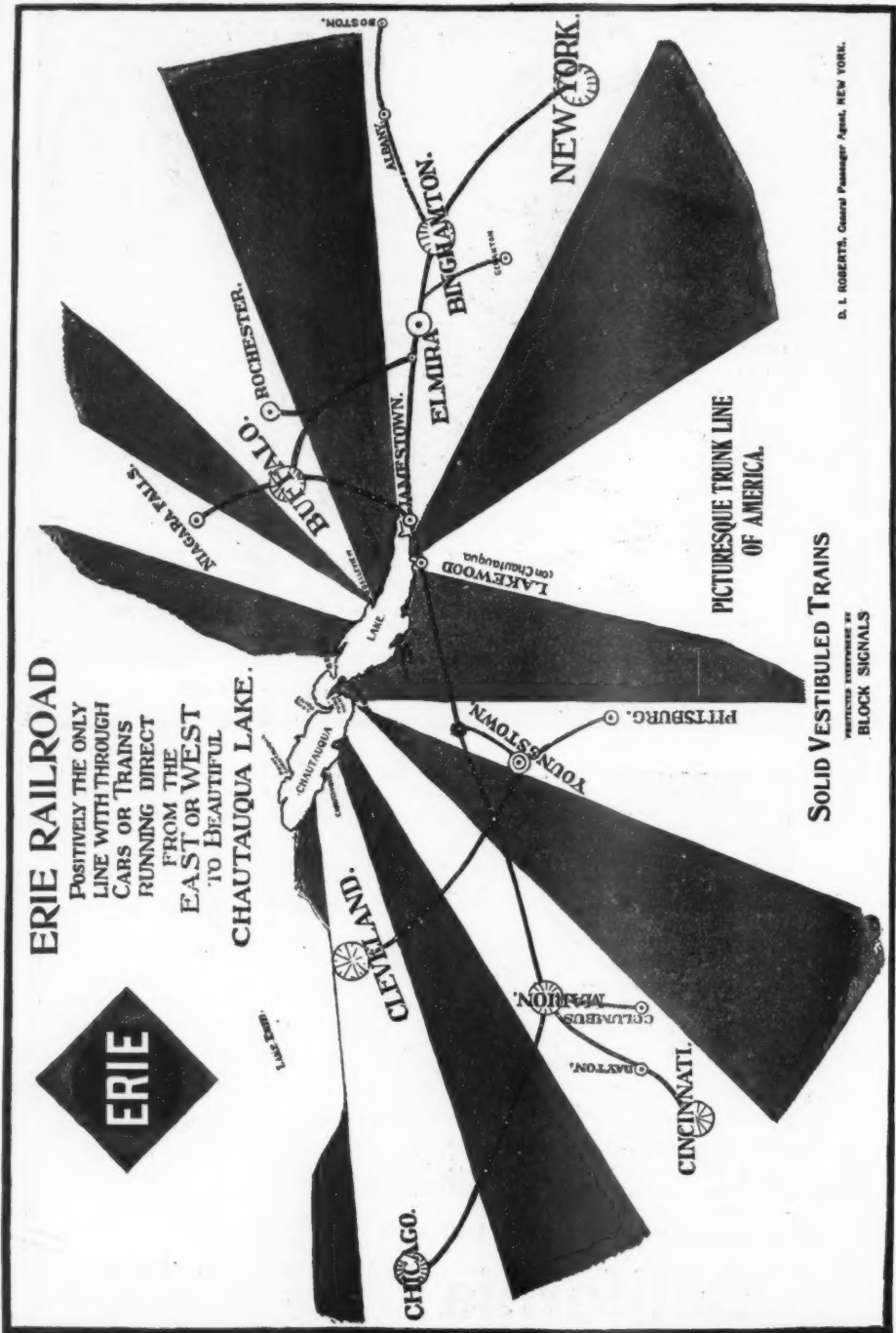
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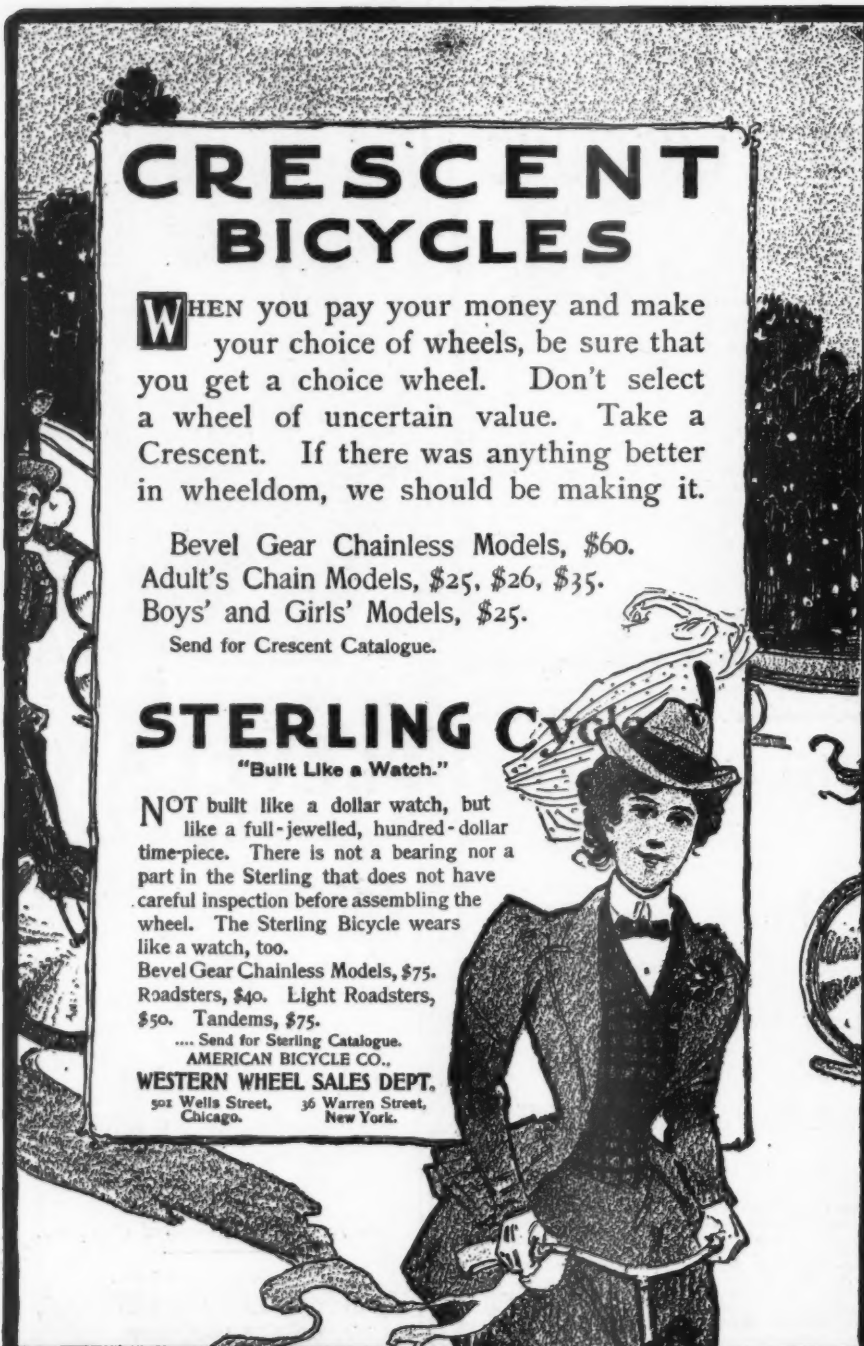
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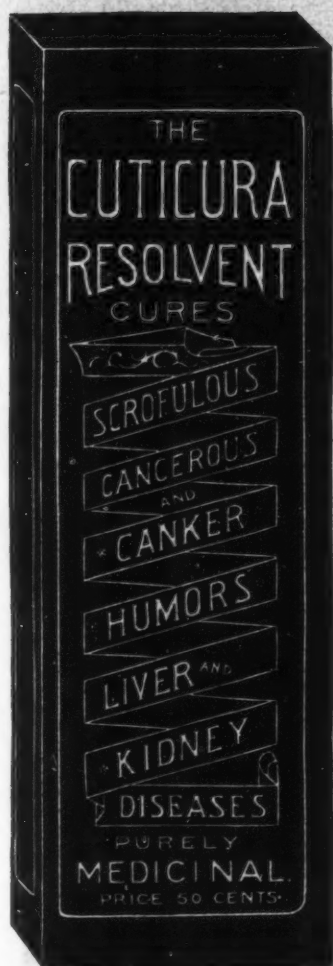
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Then on the sponge as soft as down, a cake of Ivory rub,
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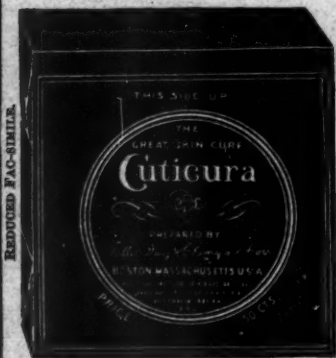
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